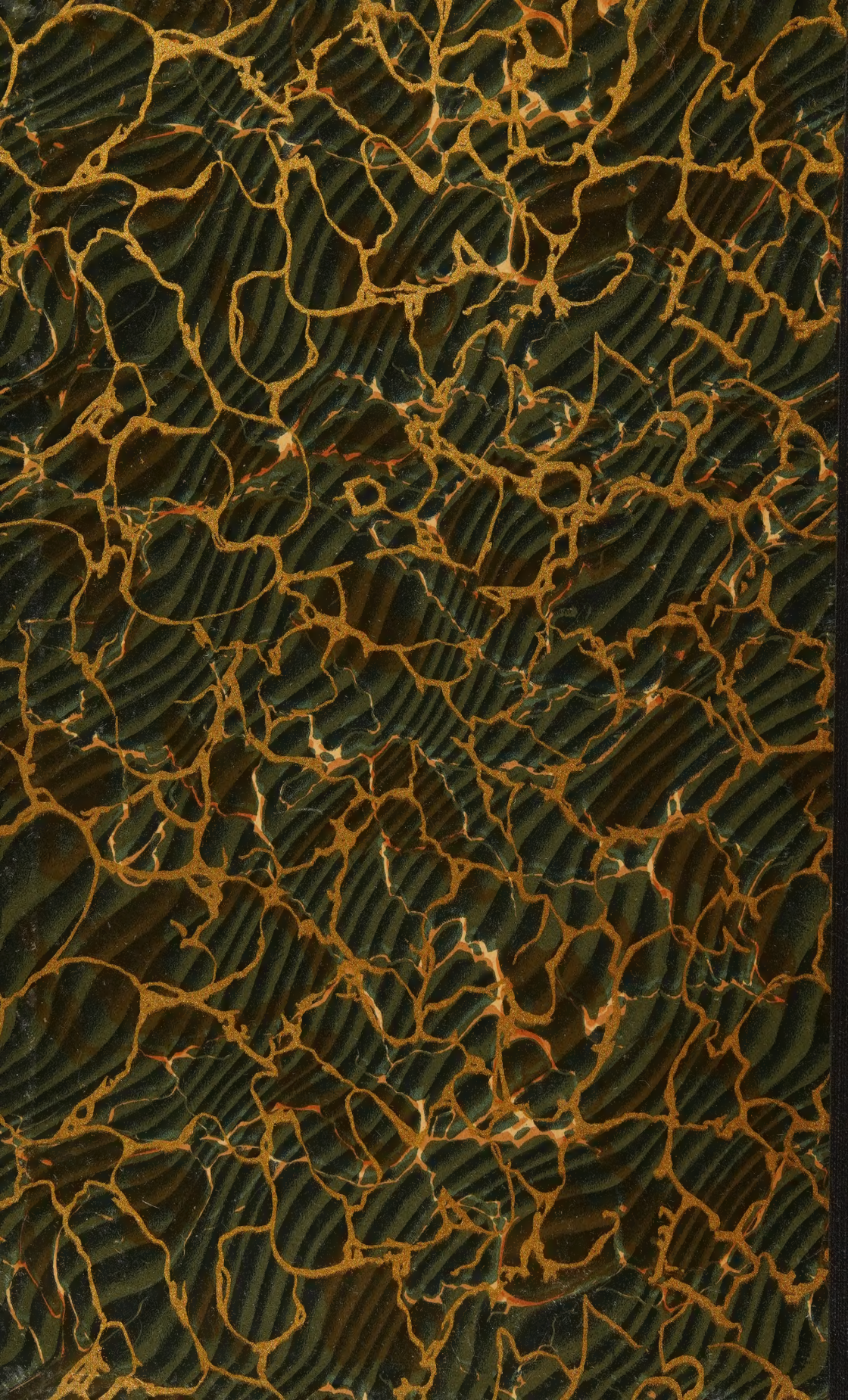

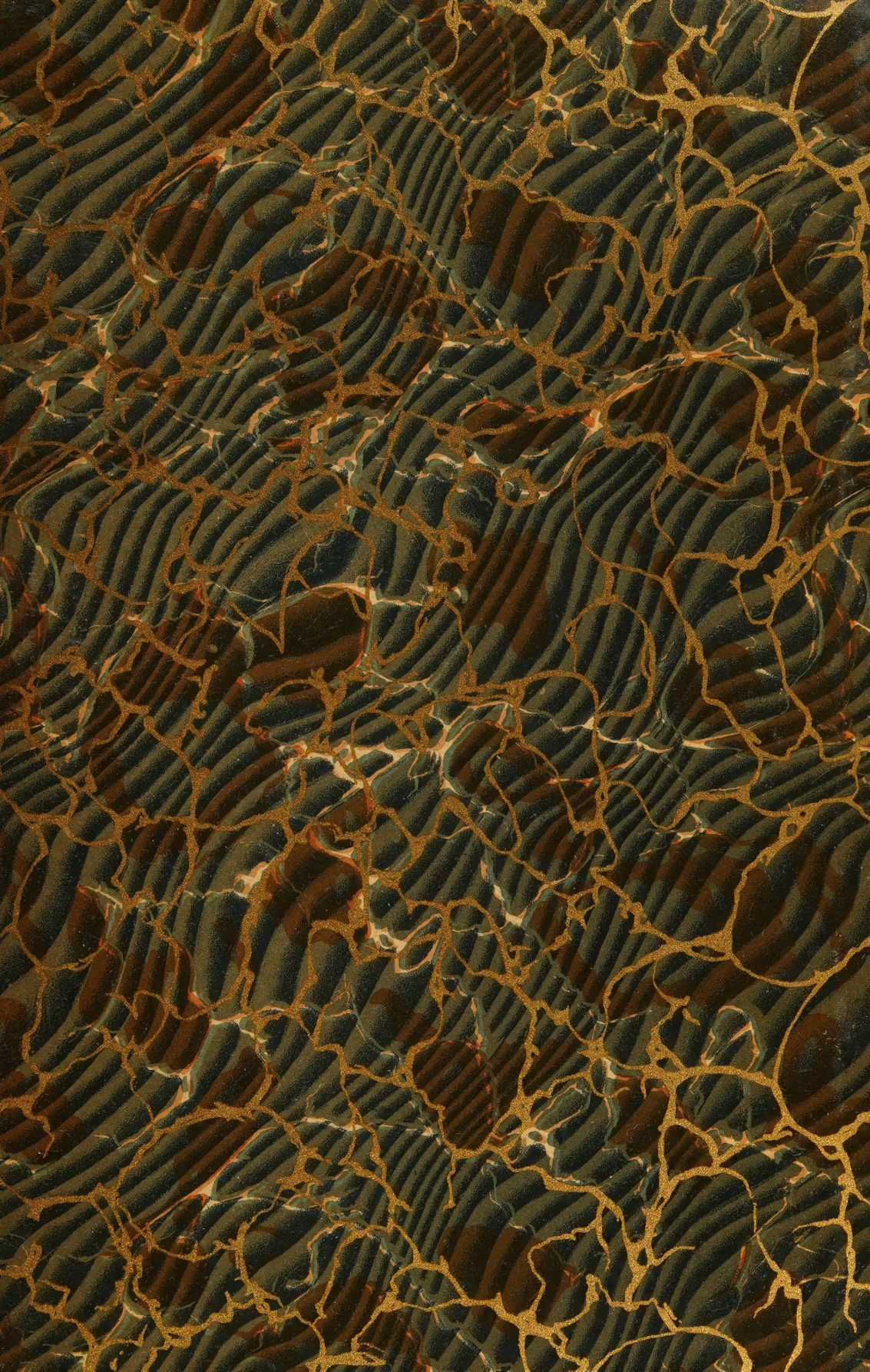

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Steele Davis

"PEARY IN THE ARCTIC REGIONS."

Original by

J. Steeple Davis.

Americans have been foremost in their strenuous efforts to reach the North Pole. These brave men have gone boldly forth risking their lives for the sake of science and future generations, with the promise and expectation of no further reward.

J. Steeple Davis has given us here an opportunity to appreciate the utter loneliness and desolate character of that region which has for so many years baffled the efforts of explorers from all lands, and furnished a topic for discussion by scientists and laymen. The indomitable Peary has again (1908) started out with greater assurance than ever that he will solve the problem.

THE HISTORY *of* OUR COUNTRY

From the Discovery of America to the Present Time

INCLUDING A COMPREHENSIVE HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION, COPIOUS ANNOTATIONS, A LIST OF AUTHORITIES AND REFERENCES, ETC. PROFUSELY AND BEAUTIFULLY ILLUSTRATED. MAPS, CHARTS, PORTRAITS, FAMOUS HISTORIC SCENES AND EVENTS, AND A SERIES OF BEAUTIFUL POLYCHROMATIC PLATES

By EDWARD S. ELLIS, A. M.

AUTHOR OF "THE STANDARD HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES" "YOUNG PEOPLE'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES", "THE ECLECTIC PRIMARY HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES", ETC.

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A
B
C
D
E
F
127°
122°
117°
112°
107°
102°
45°
40°
35°
30°
PACIFIC OCEAN
DOMINION OF CANADA
ACQUIRED BY DISCOVERY 1792, EXPLORATION 1805, BY ASTORIA SETTLEMENT 1811, AND BY FLORIDA TREATY 1819.
OREGON TERRITORY
1859
CEDED BY MEXICO 1848
1850
1854
1864
1890
1889
1867
1876
1803
1845
1807
GADSDEN PURCHASE 1853
CEDED BY TEXAS
Purchased from France
Vancouver I.
Cape Flattery
Pt. Townsend
Seattle
Olympia
Astoria
Portland
Columbia R.
Spokane
Lewiston
Snake R.
Boise
Helena
Butte
Great Falls
Missouri R.
Yellowstone R.
Miles City
Bismarck
Eugene
Salem
Baker City
Eureka
Cape Mendocino
Sacramento R.
Oakland
San Francisco
Humboldt R.
Great Salt Lake
Ogden
Salt Lake City
Virginia City
Carson
Frisco
Green R.
Grand R.
Laramie
Cheyenne
Central City
Denver
Leadville
Colorado Springs
Pueblo
Colby
Platte R.
Arkansas R.
Monterey
San Joaquin R.
Pt. Conception
Santa Barbara
Los Angeles
SANTA BARBARA ISLANDS
San Diego
Prescott
Phœnix
Gila R.
Yuma
Colorado R.
Santa Fe
Las Vegas
Canadian R.
Socorro
Rio Grande
Pecos
Tucson
Demming
Nogales
El Paso
LOWER CALIFORNIA
MEXICO
Del Rio
Rio Grande City
ARCTIC OCEAN
Pt. Barrow
East Cape
C. Prince of Wales
ARCTIC CIRCLE
Yukon R.
Circle
Dawson
Nome
St. Michaels
Kaltag
Bethel
Valdez
Sitka
BERING SEA
ALEUTIAN ISLANDS
ALASKA PENINSULA
KADIAK I.
ALASKA
1867
Scale of Miles
0 50 100 200 400
Hammond's 8 x 11 Acquisition Map of U

GUAM ISLAND 1899
HAWAIIAN ISLANDS 1898
PINE ISLAND 1899
PORTO RICO 1899
Scale of Miles
San Juan
Mayaguez
Ponce
PORTO RICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
CARIBBEAN SEA
TUTUILA ISLAND
ROSE ISLAND
Part of SAMOA ISLANDS 1900
OLOSENGA I.
OFOO I.
MANUA ISLAND
WAKE ID. 1898
WAKE ID
ORIGINAL AREAS OF THE UNITED STATES
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
L. Ontario
OTTAWA
Duluth
Marquette
Sault Ste. Marie
Mackinaw
Kingston
Toronto
Rochester
Buffalo
Syracuse
Albany
Montpelier
Augusta
Portland
Concord
Portsmouth
Manchester
Boston
Cape Cod
Providence
Newport
Hartford
New Haven
New York
Trenton
Wilmington
Dover
Cape May
Cape Charles
Cape Henry
Cape Hatteras
Cape Lookout
Cape Fear
Wilmington
Raleigh
Norfolk
Richmond
Petersburg
Danville
Lynchburg
Charleston
Washington
Annapolis
Baltimore
Philadelphia
Harrisburg
Pittsburg
Allegheny
Wheeling
Scranton
Erie
Cleveland
Toledo
Detroit
Bay City
Lansing
Grand Rapids
Kalamazoo
Milwaukee
Madison
Green Bay
Oshkosh
Manitowoc
St. Paul
Minneapolis
Dubuque
Chicago
South Bend
Ft. Wayne
Mansfield
Lima
Columbus
Dayton
Cincinnati
Marietta
Des Moines
Davenport
Rock Island
Peoria
Burlington
Keokuk
Quincy
Council Bluffs
Lafayette
Indianapolis
Terre Haute
Springfield
Alton
St. Louis
Moberly
St. Joseph
Kansas City
Jefferson City
Springfield
Joplin
Louisville
Frankfort
Evansville
Cairo
Nashville
Knoxville
Chattanooga
Memphis
Fort Smith
Little Rock
Hot Springs
Texarkana
Shreveport
Jackson
Vicksburg
Montgomery
Birmingham
Tennessee
Atlanta
Augusta
Savannah
Columbia
Charlotte
Charleston
Beaufort
Wilmington
Jacksonville
St. Mary's R.
St. Augustine
Tallahassee
Pensacola
Mobile
Baton Rouge
New Orleans
Lake Charles
Galveston
Tampa
Miami
C. Sable
Key West
STRAITS OF FLORIDA
CUBA
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
CEDED BY SPAIN
1783
1803
1812
1819
1845
1848
1853
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS 1899
Scale of Miles
PHILIPPINE SEA
CHINA SEA
LUZON
Manila
MINDORO
SAMAR
PALAWAN
PANAY
NEGROS
PARAGUA
SULU OR MINDORA SEA
MINDANAO
BORNEO
MAP OF THE
UNITED STATES
showing
ACQUISITION OF TERRITORY
Scale of Miles
0 50 100 200 300 400

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CHAPTER I

THEODORE ROOSEVELT, PRESIDENT

[*Author's Note:* The nation has now crossed the threshold into the twentieth century, and reached the 125th milestone of its own existence. The marvelous development of the country, and the wide expansion of its territory and interests as a result of the Spanish War, have brought to the United States the prestige and influence of a great world power.

New problems arise, new enterprises are undertaken, and new achievements are accomplished, all of which enlist the remarkable energy and activity of the new President. Events multiply and magnify themselves and crowd for record. Some of the more important are chronicled in this and following chapters.

As previously suggested, the abundant current literature of this period affords to the student, or general reader, excellent opportunity for extended and interesting research and investigation.]

Morro Castle, Havana, Cuba.

IN previous chapters we have recited some of the chief events in the strenuous life of Theodore Roosevelt. We have seen that he was fearless in the performance of duty, rigidly honest, a devoted patriot, and an intense American. In many respects, he was an educated Andrew Jackson, with the rough edges worn off by culture and learning, with more deference than Old Hickory was accustomed to show to the views of others; as ready to listen to the requests of the humblest as of the most exalted; ambitious only to serve his country, and a worthy member of the illustrious line of chief executives, every one of whom was a patriot, a gentleman, and an honor to the land that gave him birth.

Theodore Roosevelt was born in New York, October 29, 1858, and was graduated from Harvard University, where he became

Theodore Roosevelt

famous as an athlete, in 1880. He was elected to the New York Assembly in 1882, at the age of 24, and served at Albany until 1884. He was the leader of the Republican minority and his party's candidate for speaker. His ability and honesty were conceded by his political opponents. In the three-cornered contest for the mayoralty of New York City in 1886, in which ex-Mayor Hewitt, Henry George, and Mr. Roosevelt were the candidates, he polled a larger number of votes in proportion to the number cast than was ever before given to any Republican candidate for the office.

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

When Benjamin Harrison became President he appointed Mr. Roosevelt a National Civil Service Commissioner, and President Cleveland, having learned his worth, was glad to retain him in that important office. He resigned in order to accept the presidency of the New York Police Commission under the reform administration of Mayor Strong. His work in that office attracted the attention of the whole country. He enforced the laws with absolute fearlessness, brought order out of chaos, and won the respect of foes as well as friends.

Cleveland Recognizes Roosevelt's Ability

He resigned the office in order to become Assistant Secretary of the Navy, at the request of President McKinley. In his new field he displayed his usual energy and zeal, and no clerk in Washington worked as hard as he. He foresaw what was coming, and as president of the Strategic Board was tireless in making preparations. His services indeed were so valuable that when war came there was a general insistence that he should retain his office, but he would not listen to the counsel. He had had military experience as a captain in the Eighth regiment of the National Guard of New York, and he set about organizing the Rough Riders, requesting that Dr. Leonard Wood should be the colonel, while he served as second in command. The storming of the heights of San Juan on the first of July was the most desperate battle of the war. Roosevelt set an inspiring example to his followers, who dashed after him with a daring that swept everything from their front.

Roosevelt at San Juan

Mr. Roosevelt's popularity led to his nomination by the Republicans, on September 27, 1898, for the governorship of New York, and his election by a plurality of 18,079 votes. His administration as chief executive of the leading state in the Union met the high expectations of his friends and admirers.

President Roosevelt chose as his Cabinet: Secretary of State,

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Roosevelt's Cabinet

Elihu Root, of New York, succeeded in 1909 by Robert Bacon, of New York; Secretary of the Treasury, Leslie M. Shaw, of Iowa, succeeded in 1907 by George B. Cortelyou, of New York; Secretary of War, William H. Taft, of Ohio, succeeded in 1908 by Luke E. Wright, of Tennessee; Secretary of the Interior, James R. Garfield, of Ohio; Secretary of the Navy, William H. Moody, of Massachusetts, succeeded in 1904 by Paul Morton, of Illinois, by Charles J. Bonaparte, of Maryland, in 1905, by Victor H. Metcalf, of California, in 1907, by Truman H. Newberry, of Michigan, in 1908; Secretary of Agriculture, James D. Wilson, of Iowa; Postmaster-General, Henry C. Payne, of Wisconsin, succeeded in 1904 by Robert J. Wayne, of Pennsylvania, by George B. Cortelyou, of New York, in 1905, by George Von L. Meyer, of Massachusetts, in 1907; Attorney-General, William H. Moody, of Massachusetts, succeeded by Charles J. Bonaparte, of Maryland, in 1907; Secretary of Commerce and Labor, Oscar S. Straus, of New York.

On December 3, 1901, President Roosevelt sent his first message to Congress. He paid a high tribute to his predecessor, and denounced with fervor the anarchistic sentiment that had resulted in his assassination. He urged necessary legislation on the subject of trusts, which were just then attracting much public consideration. He also reviewed existing conditions in Cuba and the Philippines, and spoke earnestly of the new duties and responsibilities which the forced expansion of the country's jurisdiction over these islands had placed upon the government.

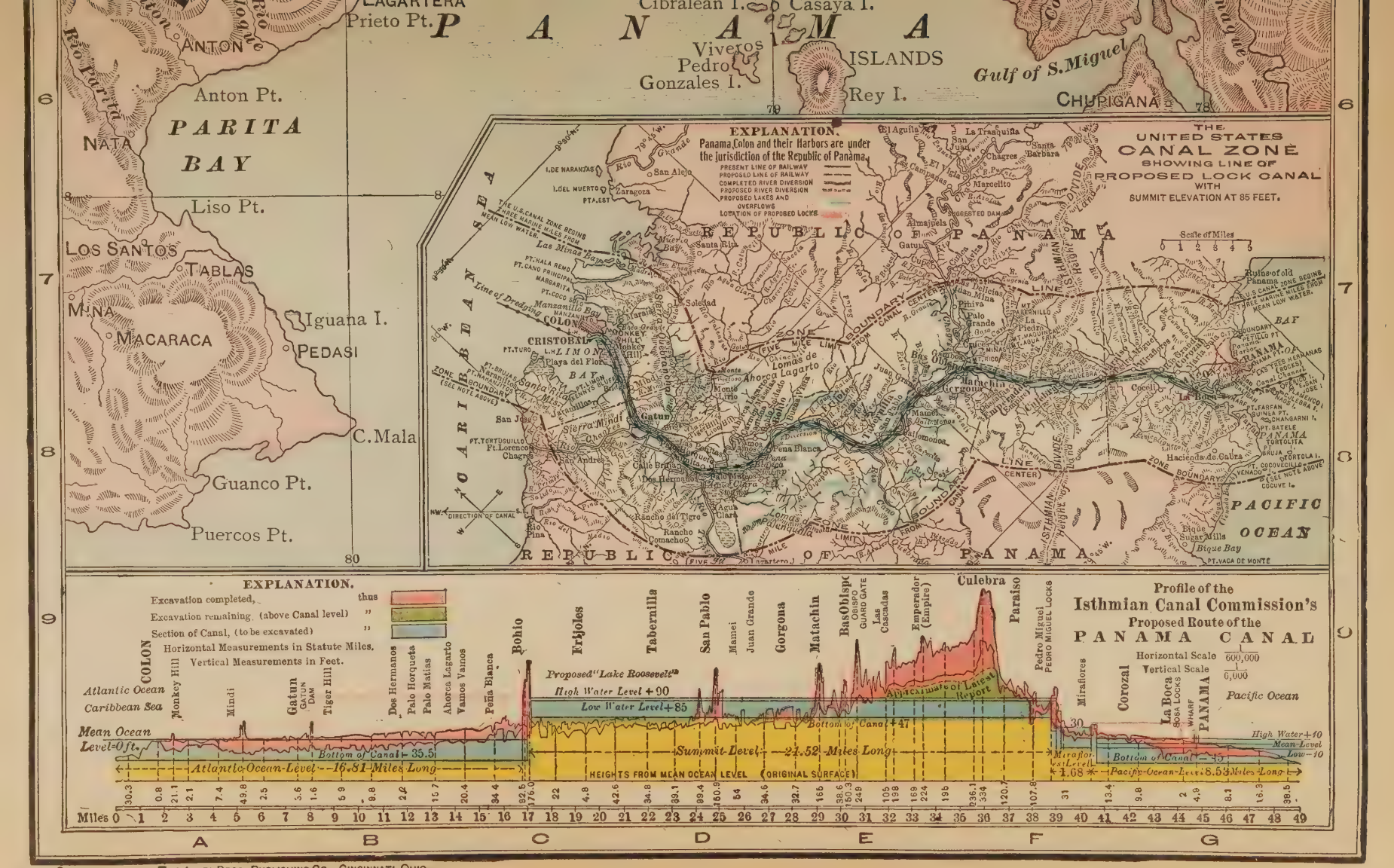
The Philippine Question

In Congress the Philippine question at once took chief place. Certain measures suggested by the President were brought up and made the subject of heated discussion. Finally, on July 1, 1902, a bill of eighty-seven sections, covering the purchase of the islands, the government, industries, institutions, public improvements, franchises, coinage, and other subjects, was passed and approved. Following this action, a bill was introduced for the repeal of the taxes levied to meet war expenditure, and passed by a vote of 288 yeas, there being no nays.

At this period, affairs in Cuba continued to claim attention. As soon as peace was declared with Spain orders were issued for mustering out the United States troops in Cuba. By December 10, 1898, 110,167 officers and men had been released from service.

It was now necessary for the United States to establish some form

ISTHMUS OF PANAMA
AND THE
UNITED STATES CANAL ZONE
Scale of Miles
0 5 10 20 30 40 50
The United States Canal Zone, under perpetual lease from the Republic of Panama, is under the control of the U. S. Department of War. It is bounded by lines, not yet permanently surveyed, running parallel to and five miles from the proposed canal route on either side. It extends three marine miles into the sea at each end, and takes in several small islands, for naval stations, in the Bay of Panama. The city limits of Panama and Colon are excepted from the zone.
The level of the Caribbean Sea at Chagres is 6ft. 6 ins. higher than the level of the Bay of Panama at low water. This fact will always compel at least one lock in the Canal, even were a sea-level canal to be decided upon.
CARIBBEAN SEA
PACIFIC OCEAN
PANAMA
COSTA RICA
COLOMBIA
GULF OF PANAMA
MOSQUITO GULF
CHIRIQUI
CHEPO
CHAGRES
SAN BLAS
DARIEN
Alajuela
San Jose
Limon
Bocas del Toro
Chiriqui Lagoon
Chiriqui Volcano
Mt. Roraima
David
Gualaca
Bugaba
Tole
Burica Pt.
Sevilla Isl.
Contreras Isls.
Coiba Isl.
Montijo Bay
Jicaron Isl.
Jicarita Isl.
Mariato Pt.
Cebaco Isl.
Catalina Hills
Santiago Peak
Veraguas Range
Santiago de Veraguas
Canaza
Chargina
Nata
Parita Bay
Las Palmas
Santiago
Farita
Montijo
Mina
Las Tablas
Pedasi
Macaraca
Azuero Peninsula
Puerto Pt.
S. Jose I.
Otoque I.
Pearl Is.
Bay of Panama
Chame
Chorrera
Cheman
Caspira
Anton
S. Carlos
Gulf of S. Miguel
Garachine Pt.
Garachine
Pinas Bay
Guanico Pt.
Puercos Pt.
C. Mala
Humboldt Bay
C. Marzo
Murinda
Urabá
G. of Darien (Urabá)
C. Tiburon
Caledonia Bay
Acla
Pt. Arboletos
Pt. Escocés
Escocés
Careta
Pt. Careta
Acta
Ratones Cays
Muletas Archipelago
San Blas Pt.
San Blas Gulf
Playon
Palenque
Rio Cidra
Nombre de Dios
Manzanillo Pt.
Puerto Bello (Portobelo)
Pt. Gorda
S. Alejo
Zaragoza
Colon (Aspinwall)
Cristobal
Toro Point
Limon Bay
Chagres R.
Chagres
Monkey Hill
La Soledad
Santa Rita
Gatun
Tiger Hill
Las Cruces
Obispo
Buena Vista
Bohio
Barbacoas
Gamboa
Paraiso
Pedro Miguel
Miraflores
Rio Grande
Corozal
Juan Diaz
Rio Pina
Pt. Diego
Salud
Calle Bruja
Lion Hill
Agua Clara
Palo Horqueta
Lagarter
Alhajuela
Sta. Barbara
Atlantic and Pacific
Japadera
Chepo
Cheman
Rio Chepo
Rio Bayana
Bayana
Playa Prieta
Panama
La Boca
Bruja Pt.
Taboga
Pacheca I.
Chapin
Chorrera
Arauan
Divide between Chagres and Pacific Rivers
Mts. of Veragua
S. Canaza Mts.
Panama Route
Canal
Rio Pina
Rio Chagres
Rio Trinidad
Rio Gatun
Rio Obispo
Rio Cano
Rio Pequeni
Rio Paja
Rio Tapia
Rio Chico
Rio Mamoni
Rio Tuira
Rio Chucunaque
Rio Pucro
Rio Atrato
Rio Sucio
Rio Salud
Rio Cruces
Rio Grande
Rio Pedro Miguel
Rio Paraiso
Rio Gamboa
Rio Chagres
Rio Trinidad
Rio Gatun
Rio Obispo
Rio Cano
Rio Pequeni
Rio Paja
Rio Tapia
Rio Chico
Rio Mamoni
Rio Tuira
Rio Chucunaque
Rio Pucro
Rio Atrato
Rio Sucio
Rio Salud
Rio Cruces
Rio Grande
Rio Pedro Miguel
Rio Paraiso
Rio Gamboa
Rio Chagres
SCALE
0 25 50 100
Longitude West from Greenwich.
80
78
79
A B C D E F G
1 2 3 4



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of government for Cuba. The treasury was empty, officials had vanished, public records had been destroyed, courts had ceased to exist, and there was but the shadow of civil government. There were no school houses and no sanitary regulations.

Military Government in Cuba

The new United States military government appointed efficient men to the necessary offices. They enforced a general cleaning up everywhere, requiring each community to establish wholesome sanitary conditions and regulations. School houses and equipment were provided, and an efficient school system was introduced for the first time in the island.

General John R. Brooke was made the temporary governor-general, and was succeeded in December by General Leonard Wood. In his report at the close of 1900, General Wood said:

"The United States troops have not been used during the present year for the maintenance of order. The police work outside the principal municipalities has been done by the rural guard, who, with their officers, are all Cubans. Over 3,000 public schools have been established, 3,000 teachers employed in them, and 200,000 children numbered as pupils. The largest number of pupils under the Spanish rule was between 26,000 and 30,000. All the larger cities have undergone extensive street improvements. Travelers can go from one end of Cuba to another without being solicited by beggars, and hunger is absolutely a thing of the past. A thoroughly competent mail service has been provided, and is being conducted with efficiency and economy. Public works involving millions of dollars have been taken up and completed. Between six and seven hundred miles of first-class roads have been built, and many hundred miles put in repair and made passable. A complete overhead telegraph system has been put in operation through all the provinces. The government is entirely self-supporting, and the treasury has an unencumbered balance of $1,500,000."

Vastly Improved Conditions in Cuba

In President Roosevelt's first official message to Congress, December 3, 1901, he had said concerning conditions in Cuba and the Philippines:

"No competent observer, sincerely desirous of finding out the facts, and influenced only by a desire for the welfare of the natives, can assert that we have not gone far enough. We have gone to the very verge of safety in hastening the process; to have taken a single step further or faster in advance, would have been folly and weak-

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

ness, and might well have been crime. We are extremely anxious that the natives shall show the power of governing themselves; we are anxious for their success, and next because it relieves us from a great burden. There need not be the slightest fear of our not continuing to give them all the liberty for which they are fit."

The government continued to follow the policy thus outlined. As a rule there is no such thing as chivalry or real friendship between nations. Selfishness is the basis of all such alliances, and the allies of today may be the bitterest enemies tomorrow. In all probability, among the powers of Christendom there was not one which did not feel morally certain that the interference of the United States in Cuba was to be, and was intended to be, the first step in the annexation of that island. Probably many of our people believed this in the face of the positive disavowal on the eve of the war with Spain. But our government gave a proof of its sincerity and unselfishness, such as cannot be found in ancient or modern annals.

TOMAS ESTRADA PALMA
First President of the Republic of Cuba

Tomas Estrada Palma Chosen President of Cuba

Estrada Palma, the eminent Cuban patriot, had been an exile for twenty years, and was a school teacher in Central New York when elected first real President of the Cuban Republic. He arrived at Sibara, April 20, 1902, and was enthusiastically welcomed to the very port from which he had been taken away a prisoner thirty years before. The same ardent affection was shown toward him at every point of his progress through the island.

The two houses of the Cuban Congress assembled May 5, and over both floated for the first time the single-starred flag of Cuba; but of course no legal business could be transacted until May 20, 1902, when the official withdrawal of the United States from Cuba was to take place, and the President-elect was to be inducted into office.

The senators were twenty-four in number, the deputies sixty-three. On the day named, which was Tuesday, a national salute of forty-five guns was fired from Morro Castle and Cabanas, whereupon the United States flags, which had floated over those fortresses since the American occupation, were lowered and the banner of Cuba hoisted in their place. At the same moment a similar change took place over the palace, the official residence of the Cuban President.

Troubles of the Cuban Republic

Thus was launched the Cuban Republic, soon to find it was sailing upon stormy waters. On March 19, 1903, the United States Senate ratified the treaty for reciprocity with the republic. It was believed that when our troops were withdrawn from the island, all would go well. Soon, however, discontent arose, followed by fitful but increasing insurrections, until anarchy impended. President Roosevelt felt compelled to intervene in September, 1906. Secretary of War Taft assumed the office of provisional governor, succeeded shortly after by Charles E. Magoon. The military occupation of the island lasted until January 28, 1909. Three days later native government was restored to the Cubans. Brief as was the American occupancy, a great deal was done for the development of the young and somewhat limp republic. Many miles of excellent roads were laid, harbors were dredged, and hospitals, lighthouses, asylums, waterworks, bridges, and public buildings constructed. In November, 1908, General Jose Miguel Gomez was elected President by the liberals, succeeded by General Mario G. Menocal in 1912, and there was promise that Cuba had at last reached the high road to peace and prosperity.

Passage of the "Spooner Act"

On June 28, 1902, Congress passed what is popularly known as the "Spooner Act", which provided for a canal along the Panama route, with the Nicaragua route as an alternative provided the President could not secure a title to existing concessions and canal property. The President was authorized to purchase, for $40,000,000, the incompleted Panama canal begun in 1882 by a French company, which six years later became bankrupt, provided that the government of Colombia transferred the franchise of the canal to the United States, including the right to protect and regulate it, with the control of ground along the same, not less than six miles wide. On January 22, 1903, a convention which met these conditions was signed by the Colombian minister at Washington. The outlook could not have been more promising.

TOMB OF COLUMBUS, IN THE CATHEDRAL, HAVANA

Brief History of the Isthmus of Panama

It is well to recall that the territory comprised in the Isthmus of Panama was a part of the Spanish colonies until the latter part of 1821, when the inhabitants proclaimed their independence, and by their wish, were incorporated into the then powerful republic of Colombia, which included the Spanish Viceroyalty of New Granada, Dominion or Captaincy-General of Venezuela, and the Presidency of Quito. The republic of Colombia was dissolved in 1831, and was succeeded by the three republics of Venezuela, Ecuador, and New Granada. The provinces of Panama and Veragua, then composing the Isthmus, revolted in 1840, and declared themselves an independent state, taking the name, a year later, of the State of the Isthmus. Fourteen years after, New Granada enacted a law which made the State of Panama an autonomous entity, with the full rights of self-government. In 1858, the federation became an accomplished fact. By and by, another revolution broke out and the federal system was strongly established. In 1885 came still another civil war, when Colombia resumed her oppressive régime. The hitherto federated United States of Colombia became the centralized republic of Colombia, and the federated states were immediately reduced to departments.

By the terms of the treaty, signed by Secretary of State John Hay, representing the United States, and Dr. Tomas Herran, representing Colombia, the United States agreed to pay Colombia $10,000,000 as a bonus for the privilege of constructing the canal; and $250,000 a year as an annual lease. The promise of such an immense sum stirred the cupidity of Colombia. Her people itched to get not only the enormous bonus, but the $40,000,000 pledged to the French company. A powerful lobby, including representatives of our transcontinental railways, wrought with such effect at Bogota, that on August 12, 1903, the Colombian Congress rejected the treaty.

Treaty Rejected by Colombia

This action, which may seem surprising, was not wholly unexpected by our government. Panama wanted the canal, and her people threatened to cut loose from Colombia, if she denied them the boon. When September 22 came, and the Colombian Congress let pass its last chance to ratify the treaty because of its expiration by the limitations of its own terms, the mutterings of revolution increased. On the 3d day of November, 1903, the prearranged signal was blown by the bugles of the firemen in Panama, and another revolution was set on foot. The people of Colon lost no time in

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

joining the insurgents, and Colombia once more found that the 300,000 population of Panama had slipped from her control.

Revolution in Colombia

These preparations for revolutions were known in Washington, and there was a widespread belief that our government was not only aware of the impending revolt, but encouraged it. This has been denied. As an official remarked, the revolution cost not one cent of money and not even a line of correspondence. The presence of a gunboat at Panama was no indication of American aid, for we have generally had such a craft there, in accordance with our pledge of nearly sixty years before to keep isthmian transit open and free. President Roosevelt therefore ordered that the route be unimpeded, and directed our officials there to prevent any attack by either faction which might disturb trade. These orders were not needed, for the revolution was unanimous and unopposed. The Colombian soldiers withdrew without firing a shot, and the application of Colombia for permission to land troops at the termini of the Panama route to suppress the revolt there and on the line of the railway, was refused.

A government, composed of leading citizens of Panama, was promptly formed and proclaimed on November 3, 1903. The next day the republic of Panama was established by the designation of three consuls—J. A. Arango, Tomas Arias, and Fredrico Boyd. On November 5, the Colombian troops left Colon, and Philippe Bunau-Varilla was appointed diplomatic agent to the United States. The United States promptly recognized the *de facto* and *de jure* government of Panama. France did the same, November 10. On the 13th of the same month, Senor Bunau-Varilla was received as minister of Panama by President Roosevelt, and at the State Department, the *de jure* government of Panama was recognized by the United States.

Rejection of the Proposal Made by Colombia

All this, as may be supposed, was wormwood and gall to Colombia. She now guaranteed to pass the original treaty at the next session of the Colombian Congress, provided the United States would restore Panama to her. It will be noted that our guarantee to New Granada was not to prevent any change of government, but simply to prevent the blocking of the isthmian route. As stated by Secretary Hay, these treaty rights "run with the land". When Colombia succeeded New Granada in control of the section, our treaty obligations passed to Colombia, and, finally, when Panama gained juris-

diction, they were transferred unaffected to her. She now became the sovereign power with which to deal, and it was our duty to prevent any invasion of her territory by Colombia, since such invasion would disturb trade over the isthmian route. In other words, the secession of Panama from its parent government was forcibly sustained by the United States. Ignoring diplomatic channels, however, Colombia sent a protest to the United States Senate, November 16, 1903, against the course of our government in this

CATHEDRAL AND PLAZA AT PANAMA

matter. The following day, Minister Bunau-Varilla addressed a note to the representatives in Washington of all powers asking the recognition of the government *de jure* of Panama. On the 18th, Secretary Hay and Senor Bunau-Varilla signed a treaty providing for the necessary concessions to the United States for the building of a canal along the Panama route. This treaty was ratified six days afterward by the provisional government of Panama. A few days later, General Reyes, as the representative of Colombia, arrived in Washington to see whether steps could not be taken to restore the sovereignty of his government over the isthmus.

Ratification of the Treaty with Panama

On November 30, Germany recognized the republic of Panama, thereby tacitly approving the terms of the Hay-Bunau-Varilla treaty, which was ratified without amendment by the government of Pan-

PANAMA CANAL. LENGTH, 40 MILES. TIME OF TRANSIT, 11 HOURS AND 14 MINUTES

ama, December 2. On the 8th, marines from the cruiser *Dixie* were landed at Colon, and took possession at Empire on the Panama railway. On January 24, 1904, the Senate decided to make public the canal treaty, which was ratified by the Senate, February 23. The vote was 66 to 14, fourteen Democratic senators voting in the affirmative.

Transfer of Panama Canal Property to the United States

This stupendous business transaction was consummated on May 4, 1904, when the property of the Panama Canal Company was formally transferred to the United States. It took place at Panama when Major Mark Brooke, of the engineer corps of the United States army, representing the Canal Commission, received the keys of the buildings of the property from M. Renaudin, the representative of the New Panama Canal Company on the isthmus. The American flag was hoisted over the canal offices in the Cathedral Plaza, and the historic event completed. Attorney-General Knox had arranged the complicated steps of paying for the property. The $40,000,000 was to be divided among several parties in accordance with the French court decisions. All those concerned agreed to an arrangement by which the immense sum named was deposited with J. P. Morgan & Company, which firm was to make the proper disbursements.

The bill for the government of Panama was passed by the Senate April 15, 1904. The President was authorized, upon the acquisition of the property, to take possession of the ten-mile strip running three miles out in the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific, embracing the islands in the Bay of Panama. The Canal Commission was empowered to exercise on the strip all the powers granted to the United States for the control, use, and occupation of the ceded land. The commission was given the power to make and enforce laws, and such ordinances as might be necessary in the cities of Panama and Colon. A bill of rights, practically the same as was given to the Philippines, was granted to the citizens, and the immigration laws of the United States were substantially enacted for the zone. The appointing and pardoning power for the tract was given to the commission, whose head was to make his permanent home on the isthmus. The House amendment to this bill conferred upon the President full power of government until the expiration of the Fifty-eighth Congress.

Government of the Canal Zone

We have learned of the purchase of the territory of Louisiana

TRANSFER OF THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE, MARCH 10, 1804

from the French Emperor, Napoleon Bonaparte, on April 30, 1803. The formal transfer took place at New Orleans on the 20th of the following December, and at St. Louis for Upper Louisiana, March 10, 1804. By a stroke of the pen, as may be said, the area of the United States was more than doubled, and the young nation became the dominant power for all time in the Western hemisphere.

Period VIII — A World Power

President Jefferson gained the core of the American continent, which one hundred years later contained one-fourth of the population, produced more than half the country's wheat, and nearly one-half its corn and its food products. Missouri had more people in 1903 than all the United States had in 1803, and the combined population of Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and Baltimore at that time was less than the number of residents in St. Louis in 1904. The exposition was a magnificent illustration of our growth and progress.

Extent of the Louisiana Purchase

The celebration of the centennial of this epoch-making event was held in St. Louis from May 1 to December 1, 1904. The buildings were appropriately dedicated April 30, 1903, the ceremonies taking place in the grand hall of the Liberal Arts building. Addresses were made by ex-Senator Thomas H. Carter, of Montana, chairman of the United States commissioners; David R. Francis, president of the exposition, and Theodore Roosevelt, President of the United States. The orator of the day was ex-President Cleveland, the diplomatic corps and many distinguished Americans being present. On May 1, the diplomatic representatives of foreign powers, and others made addresses in the same hall, and, on the following day, Governor Alexander M. Dockery, of Missouri, welcomed the governors of the other states, who were present at the dedication ceremonies.

The impressive features of the exposition were its vastness and variety. Nothing of the like was ever seen before anywhere. The buildings were huge, the distances immense. Thus a visitor could stroll through the Palace of Agriculture, for nine miles, all the time gazing upon something new and interesting, and yet not once retrace his steps. Fifty million dollars were expended in making this exposition an illustration of the advancement of our country during the previous century of its history.

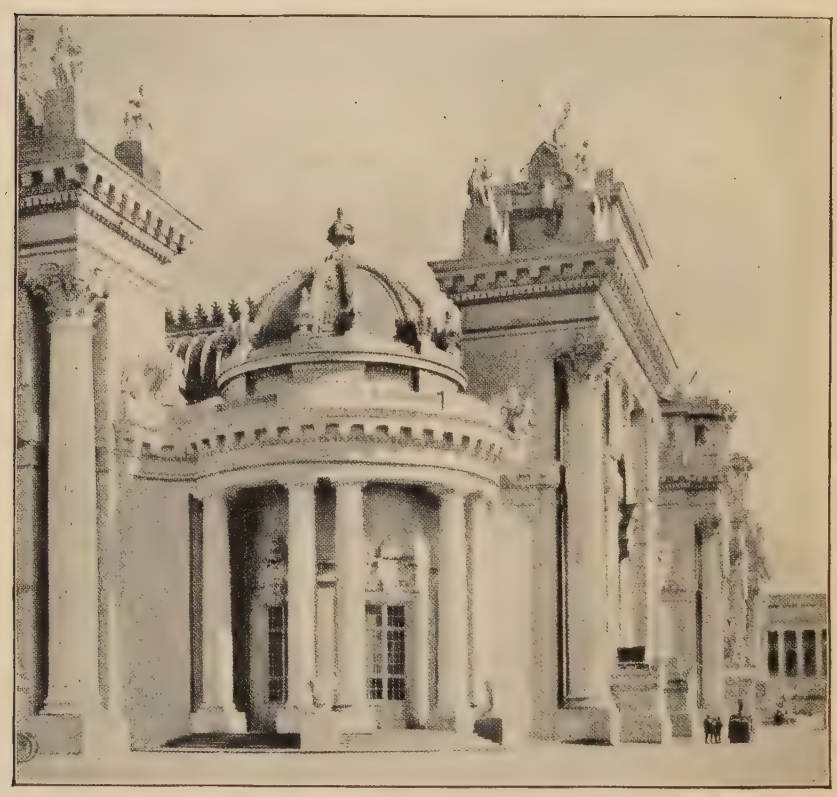
The St. Louis Exposition

The following message was sent by President Roosevelt just before midnight, July 4, 1903, from his home at Oyster Bay, L. I., and was addressed to Governor Taft at Manila:

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

"I open the American-Pacific cable with greetings to you and the people of the Philippines."

In order to give a historic setting to the first message sent under the Pacific, the one section of the wire over which the President's words passed was made up of pieces that were identified with the development of telegraphic, telephonic and power transmission,



ENTRANCE TO PALACE OF LIBERAL ARTS, LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION

"Historical Section" of the First Pacific Cable

from the time when Morse proved the practicability of the invention. This "historical section" consisted of portions of the wire over which Morse sent his first message, of the wire over which Bell transmitted his first telephone message, a section of the first cable used by Cyrus W. Field to communicate with Europe under the Atlantic, a strip of the wire employed by Edison when he lighted his first incandescent lamp from an electrical lighting station, a section of the wire through which a current was sent in Richmond, Va., to provide a

motive power for the first trolley railway, a strip of the wire through which the current of electricity was sent by President Cleveland when he opened the World's Fair in Chicago, and a portion of the cable that carried the first current of electricity from the power plant at Niagara Falls.

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER

It is worth recording that the above message is the first that actually passed around the world. President Roosevelt's message took the following course: from Oyster Bay it flashed to San Francisco, thence under the Pacific to Honolulu, through the stations at Midway Island, Guam and Manila to Hong Kong, from which point it was sent along wires and cables to the Azores, where it was seized by the commercial cables and returned to New York.

Course of the First Message Across the Pacific

Previous to the laying of the Pacific cable, a telegram to Manila had to zigzag through Portugal, Egypt, India, and China, traveling 14,000 miles and requiring fifteen separate transmissions. Our government paid $400,000 annually for this service to the Philippines. Since Congress hesitated to undertake so important but expensive work, John W. Mackay offered, in 1901, to lay a cable without subsidy or guarantee. His offer was accepted, and the new cable was begun on December 18, 1902. The route consisted of four great ocean stretches: 2,276 miles between San Francisco and Hawaii; 1,254 miles from Hawaii to Midway Island; 2,593 miles from Midway Island to Guam, and thence 1,490 miles to Luzon.

One of the seemingly paradoxical results of this electrical girdling of the globe, at this time, may be thus illustrated. A message sent from New York at 5 o'clock in the morning would reach Honolulu at 11 p.m. on the previous day; Midway Island an hour earlier; Guam at 7 p.m. on the day the dispatch left New York; India at 3 o'clock on the afternoon of its transmission, and back to New York at about 6 o'clock the same morning. In other words, a message leaving New York, westward, on one day makes a trip into the previous day, while a dispatch traveling eastward, reaches Guam the next day, and comes back to New York within an hour after it was sent.

Delusive Figures

The government cable between Seattle and Sitka was completed August 28, 1904, by the transport *Burnside*, which had been engaged at the work for several months. The Seattle end was buried ten miles down the Sound from the city, where the splicing took place. There was a general celebration, and congratulatory messages were sent to the mayors of Juneau, Skagway, and Sitka.

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

The wonderful discoveries already made in electrical science, and the certainty that still more amazing ones were to be discovered, left little doubt that the twentieth century would see the "Age of Steam" supplanted by the "Age of Electricity". When the electro-magnetic telegraph was invented by Professor Morse, as related in another part of this work, the whole world was startled and believed that ingenuity and invention could go no farther in that direction.

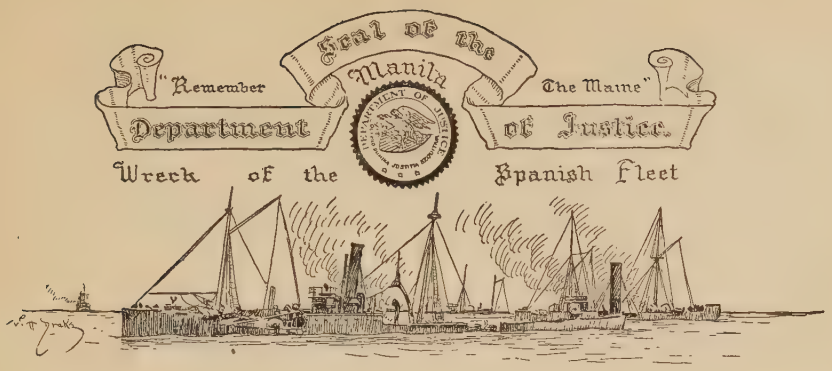
Discovery of the Wireless Telegraph

But now a successful means of telegraphing without the use of wires had been found. Numerous tests of Signor Marconi's system had been made, and its practicability had been established beyond question. During the yacht races for the *America's* cup, in the autumn of 1899, apparatus was installed on the steamer *Ponce* and at the Navesink Highlands. The first message sent by wireless telegraphy over a considerable distance in this country was flashed between the stations on September 29, during the naval parade in New York City, in honor of Admiral Dewey. The result was perfect, even when the *Ponce* was as far up the North river as 125th street. A less expensive apparatus for wireless telegraphy was tested by the Lighthouse Department at Tompkinsville, Staten Island, August 15, 1899. It was the invention of W. J. Clark and covered a distance of three and a half miles, but beyond that limit the signals were not so clear. Many other experiments, both in this country and Europe, had placed the success of this astounding invention beyond all possible doubt. Indeed, wireless telegraphy was coming into general use. Steamers communicated with one another in crossing the ocean, and the passengers exchanged messages with their friends on shore. During the war between Japan and Russia, when the DeForest system was employed, a message was sent from outside Chemulpo over 210 sea miles.

Electricity Supplants Steam

For short interurban hauls electric operated lines were steadily replacing those of steam, and the use of electricity was fast expanding for transportation, communication, and lighting. Wireless storm warnings and general weather forecasts, covering conditions one hundred miles off shore, were inaugurated by the United States Navy Department, July 15, 1913. Direct wireless communication between America and Asia had been established by the completion of stations at Anadyr, Siberia, and Nome, Alaska. Progress in this wonderful field was continuous and rapid, and far greater achievements than those named were seen to be near at hand.

UNITED STATES ARMY UNIFORMS, PRESENT REGULATION—1903



CHAPTER II

AGUINALDO AND THE PHILIPPINES

[*Author's Note:* This chapter gives a brief record of conditions and events in the Philippine islands following the end of the Spanish War. The control and management of territory and peoples in the Orient was a new experience for the American nation. But the men and the means were found for the successful management of the difficult problems which arose. It is a story of isolation, endurance, and bravery for the American soldier, and of patience and wisdom for American statesmen charged with a new line of civic administration and diplomatic duties and responsibilities. In all the confusion incident to an unprecedented and unexpected situation the fairness and unselfishness of the American administration made such a favorable impression upon all concerned as soon to win the confidence and support of the different parties and factions.

There is great abundance of current periodical and monograph literature, and official publications, available to the student.]

WE have given in other chapters brief accounts of the more important activities of the United States in the Philippines as a result of the war with Spain. In order to insure an intelligent understanding of this important episode in the history of the country, it will be well to give a brief account of the islands, and particularly of the activities of General Emilio Aguinaldo, the noted leader of the revolutionary insurgents.

The Philippine group of islands, lying off the southern coast of Asia, number about 3,141, of which 1,668 are listed by name. Their total land area is about that of the New England states and the states of New York and New Jersey. Luzon is the principal island of the group, and on this island the capital city of Manila is situated. The total population, by the census taken in 1903 by the United States, was 7,635,426, of which seven millions were more or less

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

civilized, and the remainder were wild tribes. Racially the inhabitants are mainly Malays. The civilized tribes are practically all nominal adherents of the Catholic church, that religion having been introduced by the Spanish when they took possession of the islands in 1565. The Moro tribes are Mohammedans, and the other wild tribes have no religion.

As in Cuba, these islands of late years had been the scene of repeated revolts due to the misrule of Spain. These insurrections were mainly the work of men of mixed Spanish and native blood, who were much more numerous than the Spaniards. Their principal leader, Emilio Aguinaldo, was a man of education and ability. He had succeeded in winning the general support of the half-civilized tribes, whose hatred of the Spaniards was as intense as that of the Cubans, and was due to the same causes.

GOVERNOR-GENERAL AUGUSTIN

Finding it impossible to crush the rebellion in 1897, the Spanish authorities in November of that year bought off the insurgent chiefs, Aguinaldo and Alexandro, for $400,000 cash, and with a promise of the reforms that had been demanded. Then with that incomprehensible idiocy which is the most distinctive trait of Spanish diplomacy, the promises were broken, and the natives were ripe for another revolt when the American squadron appeared on the scene.

SPANISH DUPLICITY

Admiral Dewey held several interviews with Aguinaldo, leader of the insurgents, but always did so unofficially, and thus avoided committing his government to any scheme or policy that could possibly embarrass it. He won the high regard of Aguinaldo, and

formed a liking for the remarkable man, from whom he secured a pledge to conduct his war against the Spaniards in a civilized manner. Dewey warned the insurgent leader that if he failed to do so the guns of the American fleet would be turned upon him; and Aguinaldo kept his promise.

Aguinaldo displayed energy and ability in his operations against the Spaniards, and won a number of creditable successes. Within a fortnight he gathered around him a force of 3,000 armed men and captured 1,600 prisoners, besides the entire province of Cavité. His recruits increased rapidly as he marched against the city of Manila, and his successes steadily continued.

Aguinaldo's Proclamations

On May 24, he issued three proclamations. In the first he stated that he had laid down his arms and disbanded a strong army upon the solemn assurance of Spain that the reforms demanded would be granted; but the promise had been repudiated. In view of this, he forbade in his second proclamation every attempt at negotiation between the rebels and the Spaniards for peace. His third proclamation was addressed to the Filipinos; and after gracefully expressing his gratitude to the great North American nation, gave rigid orders to respect the lives and property of all foreigners, and to conduct the war humanely "in order to retain the high opinion of the never-too-highly-praised nation of North America."

As a contrast with the attitude of Aguinaldo and the insurgents, and as a specimen of Spanish bombast, the following proclamation by General Augustin, the governor-general at Manila, is worthy of permanent record:

Augustin's Proclamation

"The North American people, constituted of all social excrescences, have exhausted our patience and provoked war by their perfidious machinations, their acts of treachery, their outrages against the law of nations and international conventions. The struggle will be short and decisive. Spain will emerge triumphant from the new test, humiliating and blasting the hopes of the adventurers from those United States, that, without cohesion, without history, offer only infamous traditions and ungrateful spectacles in her chambers, in which appear insolence, defamation, cowardice, and cynicism. Her squadron, manned by foreigners, possesses neither instruction nor discipline."

When the war with Spain came to an end, and the Americans were left in possession of the Philippines, Aguinaldo and his associates

HOME LIFE AMONG THE FILIPINOS

took the position that the islands should become an independent nation, and that the government should be turned over to the insurgent following. The Americans saw plainly that the Filipinos were not yet prepared for self-government, and that it was necessary for their own protection that the Americans should continue in control of the islands until such time as independence for the islands should seem safe and desirable. This did not satisfy the insurgents, and they turned their efforts against the forces and authority of the United States. The hostilities were of a desultory character, lasting through weary, aggravating months, seemingly with little substantial progress on the part of the United States, though all the time the inevitable end was steadily drawing nearer.

MAJOR-GENERAL ELWELL S. OTIS

There was a sameness in the news from that distant land which grew monotonous. Whenever the Americans attacked, they swept everything before them. While the losses on our side were so trifling as to look ridiculous when compared with those incurred in the fighting between the Japanese and Russians in Manchuria, or the later stupendous struggle in Europe, yet many of the native insurgents were slain, and it became a matter of wonder why Aguinaldo and his followers persisted in keeping up the hopeless fight. Yet they did so, and it became necessary to reënforce our troops in the Philippines from time to time in order to make substantial progress.

Aguinaldo's Persistency

It often happened that after the American forces had taken certain

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

positions of the insurgents, who were sent scurrying from their defenses, our troops abandoned the captured locality and returned to their former positions, whereupon the Filipinos scrambled back to their places, and thus, in some cases, the same positions were captured more than once. To give the particulars of the fighting in the Philippines would be of slight interest, because of the sameness mentioned.

GENERAL FREDERICK FUNSTON

Capture of Aguinaldo

On the 23d of March, 1901, General Aguinaldo was captured at his temporary capital of Palanan, island of Luzon, as the result of a successful expedition planned and executed by General Frederick Funston, of the Kansas volunteers. The details of the incident constitute one of the most sensational events in our national history; and the success of the undertaking, together with the importance of the results, caused the immediate promotion of General Funston to the position of brigadier-general in the regular army.

The captured leader was taken to Manila, where he was treated with the utmost courtesy by the military authorities. A few days after his arrival he took the oath of allegiance to the United States, and on the 19th of April he issued an address to the Filipino people, in which he declared that a complete termination of hostilities and a lasting peace were not only desirable, but absolutely essential to the welfare of the Philippine islands. "The Filipinos have never been dismayed at their weakness," he declared, "nor have they faltered in following the path pointed out by their fortitude and courage. The time has come, however, in which they find their advance along this path to be impeded by an irresistible force, which, while it restrains them, yet enlightens their minds and opens to them another course, presenting them the cause of peace."

EMILIO AGUINALDO

Following the publication of this address, Governor-General MacArthur ordered the release of 1,000 Filipino prisoners, upon their also taking the oath of allegiance. By the middle of April the island of Panay was declared completely pacified. The official losses of the insurgents, largely estimated, was given as: killed, fully 25,000; captured or surrendered, 20,069; rifles captured or surrendered, 7,667; rounds of ammunition captured (incomplete returns), 605,142.

Filipino Losses

The government now began reducing the military forces in the islands. After the shipment home of volunteers from Manila, on June 6, the number of regulars left was 49,000, the expectation being that, by the close of the year, this force could be reduced to 40,000, or possibly 30,000.

THE FAMOUS NINTH INFANTRY

That a great secret political society existed among the Filipinos had been known for a long time, but the first authentic account of the organization was given by Colonel L. W. V. Kennon, U. S. A., in the *North American Review*. From this it appears that the society was founded in 1892, by Andres Bonifacio, a Manila brickmaker. In the Tagalo language the name was *Katipunan*, which meant in English, "The Supreme and Venerable Association of the Sons of the People."

Secret Political Society of the Filipinos

The society grew rapidly in Manila and the Tagalo provinces, and at the end of four years had a membership estimated at 15,000. Its aim from the beginning was the overthrow of the friars' domination and the achievement of certain political reforms, but at first the leaders did not agitate for autonomy and a republic. In 1896, when Aguinaldo was president of the association, he learned of a plan of the government to arrest all members of the order. Immediately he roused them to rebellion, and several Spanish garrisons were attacked and captured. After eight months of fighting the government suppressed the rising by bribery, as before related.

The outbreak of the war between Spain and the United States thrilled the members of the order with the belief that they could establish a republic, dreaming, also, of the founding of a grand Malay empire, wherein all that race should be subject to the Tagals of Luzon. When Aguinaldo found that he must reckon with the Americans, he had gone too far to retreat, and what followed is already known to the reader.

The Island of Samar

Samar was one of the Philippines, lying southeast of Luzon, from which it was separated by a strait twenty miles wide. Its length was 140 miles, with an average breadth of 20 miles, and it had a population of perhaps 100,000. The people were a scowling, sullen race, different from those of the other Visayan islands. For a long time Samar had been the stronghold of the outlaw Moro chiefs and the Sulu pirates. As one sailed along the rocky coasts, he saw on every headland a coral stone fort, from which, for many a year, the natives had scanned the sea on the alert for the coming of the ruthless visitors. The men of Samar, therefore, naturally distrusted all strangers, and having been accustomed from early youth to firearms, they were unconquerable by the Spaniards, whose sovereignty over them was but a shadow.

For eighteen months after the islands came under our jurisdiction, the Forty-third and Twenty-ninth United States volunteers held

A FILIPINO HUT

what might be termed a rambling possession of Samar, fighting daily until their two years' term of service ended. When they went away, they left the Ninth and the First United States infantry scattered here and there along the coast, and in some places in the interior; the detachments numbered no more than twenty men.

A brief account of one tragic incident illustrates to what dangers our soldiers were exposed in the Philippines. The brave soldiers stationed at the pueblo of Balangigan, on the southern coast of Samar, were so absolutely cut off from the world, that, for a period of two months, not a communication had reached them or come from them.

A Laborious Trip

Some of the officers thought that orders were probably awaiting them, and to learn the truth Lieutenant Bumpus and four privates were detailed to make the trip of forty miles up the strait to Tacloban. The pull in an open native dugout was a laborious one against wind and tide, and on the forenoon of the second day, the lieutenant put into Basay, the post next to Balangigan, where Company G of the same regiment was stationed. Lieutenant Bumpus was so exhausted that Captain Bookmiller, the commanding officer of the post, begged him to remain over until the next day.

"No," he replied, pointing to the mailbags in the dugout; "the poor fellows are so homesick to read what is in these that I have not the heart to make them wait another hour."

News from Home

It need not be said how welcome Lieutenant Bumpus was to his comrades. That night one of the soldiers, who was happy over the tidings from beyond the sea, rose from his cot in the large barrack, commanded by the first sergeant, and sat for some minutes in the window, with the cool breeze fanning his face, while his thoughts wandered to his far-away home. In the midst of his musings he noticed, just across the plaza, a group of people, who presently vanished in the gloom and were followed by another group. A feeling of uneasiness inclined the watcher to call the attention of the corporal of the guard to the assemblage at this unusual hour, but just then the monotonous, whining chant of prayers floated to him through the still air. This satisfied the soldier that all was well, and shortly after he lay down and slept until six o'clock in the morning.

At the hour named nearly all the men were at breakfast in the dining hall, which was five or six rods from the main barrack. The

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

barracks were three in number, and in front of each a sentinel was on guard. In the upper room of the main barrack most of the guns and ammunition were kept, under a guard of three men, while in front of the officers' quarters stood a sentry, and inside the quarters were a corporal and two men.

At the breakfast hour, the prisoners, of whom the little garrison held not quite a hundred, were lolling in the grass under the Sibley tents, and in a corner was a sentry standing guard over a pile of bolos used by the prisoners when at work. As the time approached for the beginning of the day's labor, the other members of the gang, who, on account of their good conduct, were not kept in the prison tents, were lounging in groups about the guardhouse, while other free laborers came straggling in just as they had been accustomed to do.

Treachery of the Chief of Police

It should be explained that the chief of police was the leader in the horrible plot, though he pretended from the first to be a friend of the Americans. He now made his appearance, walking across the plaza accompanied by two or three of his lieutenants. With his usual deliberate step he came up to the sentry before the guard tent and asked him whether it was time to begin work. Before a reply could be made the chief leaped like a cat upon the sentry, wrenched his rifle from his grasp, and felled him senseless with a frightful blow from the clubbed weapon.

At the same instant the chief uttered a rasping cry, in which hundreds of others joined, and swarms of men, many of whom had been crouching in the grass, came running from all directions, wild to join in the massacre. Up in the belfry of the church a dozen others were stealthily peering out and awaiting the first blow. The moment it was delivered they seized the rope and began furiously tugging at it. As on the eve of St. Bartholomew, the tones of the bell rang out clear and penetrating, and were quickly joined by the harsh notes of conch shells from the top of every hill. Each bush, shrub, and other hiding-place seemed to uncover a dusky assassin, who sped in his bare feet, with dagger and knife, to aid in the diabolical work that was not to leave one of the hated "Americanos" alive. Their first act was to leap upon the sentries and cut them down with their knives. The only man to escape was the sentry who had been stunned by a blow from his own rifle. He was overlooked in the mêlée, and on regaining his senses was able to join Sergeant Markley and his heroic band.

Massacre of American Soldiers at Samar

When the attack burst upon the officers, Captain Connell dashed to the window which had been smashed in by the assailants, where with only his naked fists he pummeled the swarthy natives, who struck quick, fierce blows with their daggers. From amid the smothering swarm he plunged forward like a lion beset by tormentors and leaped down a distance of twenty feet. Though wounded in a dozen places he regained his feet, fell a second time, rose once more, and then went down under a reign of daggers. That was the end!

Death of Captain Connell

The dauntless courage of the American soldier had been proved in too many thousands of instances to need any comment at our hands. Instead of scattering in a wild panic, to be hunted down and tortured to death by the savages, the men caught up saucepans, shovels, baseball bats, sticks, stones, and anything that could be made to serve as the crudest sort of weapon, and went to cracking dusky heads as if it were the veriest pastime. What they needed before everything else were the rifles in the barrack, which, like the others, had been captured by the enemy.

The unsuccessful attack upon the main barrack left few survivors. Many of these were cut down as they ran for the second barrack, where Sergeant Betron and Corporal Burke were leading, with the same incredible courage, their unarmed comrades against the daggers of the bolomen, but with no more promise of success than that at the main barrack. The floor was covered so thickly with dead bodies that one could not move without stepping upon them. Despite their desperate resistance the Americans were forced steadily back out of the barrack, the door being so jammed and wedged with savages that they interfered with one another. The little band took refuge in a smaller room, where, with their backs against the wall, so that only a few bolomen could approach them at the same time, the Americans prepared to sell their lives as dearly as they could. Burke found himself growing weak from loss of blood, and determined to fight no more; but the sight of the chief of police in front of him, still eager to slay every white man without mercy, and the knowledge that he was the arch conspirator, fired the brave fellow with the resolve that when he died that unspeakable wretch should go with him.

Bravery of Sergeant Betron and Corporal Burke

Watching like a skilled pugilist for an opening, Burke leaped through the bloody throng and gripped the unsuspecting chief by the throat, bent on strangling him to death before help could avail. The two rolled to the floor, so interlocked and involved that none of the

A Death Struggle

Period VIII
A World Power

natives dared strike for fear of injuring the chief. Burke felt his strength going fast. He was bleeding from many wounds, and his fingers relaxed their grip around the throat of the yet uninjured chief. But, still interlocked, they tumbled back upon a cot. The weak and despairing Burke

THE MASSACRE ON SAMAR ISLAND

A Gruesome Struggle

flung out his hand in an aimless way, when, to his amazement, it struck a revolver. The weapon had belonged to the hospital man, slain in the first rush, and no one had observed it lying on the cot. Bringing the loaded pistol to bear against the head of the chief, the

sergeant shot him dead; but the tenacious savage, in the instant of his dying struggle, sank his teeth so deeply into his adversary's arm that they met through the flesh; and, though the man was dead, his rigid arms and legs held Burke so firmly that he could not release himself. But his pistol arm was free, and with incredible coolness he emptied the four remaining chambers among the other assassins, each shot bringing down a man. The unexpected fusillade cleared the room for a minute or two, when Burke's friends, untwisting the limbs of the dead chief, set their comrade free. Not an ounce of ammunition could now be found, and the savages, quick to see the dilemma of their antagonists, lost no time in returning to the charge.

A Ray of Hope

It looked as if their last minute had come, and Burke and Betron grimly shook hands. Then they braced themselves for the final shock, one with a bolo he had captured, and the other with the butt of his revolver. At this critical moment, the "ping" of a Krag-Jorgensen rang across the plaza, followed by a second and a third. The veterans could not mistake the report. Again it sounded, and the blanching faces of the savages in the building revealed their terror. Outside, two or three of their number lunged forward and lay motionless, as other reports were heard. Relief had come in a strange and unexpected manner.

Sergeant George F. Markley, of Weston, Va., was the hero of the Samar disaster. He was of herculean proportions, hardy, athletic, lithe, active, and as cool as he was brave. He served in the Fifth Maryland volunteers during the Spanish War, and, in 1899, enlisted in the regular army and won rapid promotion, where it is won by merit alone.

The barrack where Markley and eight men lived was the most northerly and detached of all. The surrounding jungle approached so close that he was never easy, and kept sleepless vigilance. In addition to the sentry before the door, he always had one man stationed over the rifles. On the fatal morning he stood guard himself, and was relieved by the first soldier of his squad to return from breakfast. He had just reached the kitchen shed and had a cup of coffee to his lips, when the shouts and ringing of bells told him the massacre had begun. Without hesitation, Markley leaped up and ran at full speed to the barrack where the rifles were stored.

The Hero of Samar

His prominent figure and his running drew instant attention, and several of the savages tried to stop him. He knocked them over with

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

kicks and blows, though one, who seized his ankle, brought him to the ground. In a flash he was up and off again. When he caught sight of the shack among the banana trees, he saw that the savages were ahead of him. Three, armed with bolos and daggers, stood in the door waiting for him to come within their reach. The sentry lay dead on the ground, and the soldier who had been left in charge of the guns was gasping in the death agony. Behind Markley came his fleet-footed pursuers; they were close upon him, when suddenly he drew up to decide what he should do, if, indeed, he could do anything. And then it was that Sergeant Markley did a thing which, were it not clearly proved, would surpass belief.

An Amazing Exploit

Gathering himself together for a supreme effort, he dashed straight at the three bolomen who were awaiting him, and, an instant before coming within their reach, he leaped into the air and struck two of them in the stomach with his knees, driving them back with such violence that the further wall of the shack gave way and the men went down in the dust of the falling wall. Markley grappled with the third man, banged his head against a beam until he was senseless, and then leaped to the rifle-rack, where all the weapons were. Snatching out his own he turned the muzzle upon the fellow on the floor, who was in the act of rising. The two, who had been hurled through the wall of the house, scurried off toward the tall grass, and one escaped, but Markley brought down the other before he got beyond range.

Looking around the sergeant saw that though he had plenty of firearms, he was entirely alone. Elbert B. De Graffenreid, a private from Wichita, Kansas, stood on the top of a pile of paving stones, which he coolly hurled with deadly effect against a horde clamoring for his life. Markley began picking off these assailants, when another private, hearing his rifle, started on a run toward him. Five pursuers were on his heels, but Markley dropped two and the others turned back. The soldier quickly arrived, and, seizing a rifle, the natives found that two crack shots were making things warm for them. One by one other soldiers dashed up, among them being the private who had made such good use of the paving stones. His arrival at the shack made the number of defenders eight, though some were wounded. Each had a rifle and ammunition and knew how to use them.

Primitive Weapons

Markley and his men surrounded the barrack where Burke and

Betron had made up their minds that their last minute had come. But the reënforcements now gave an exhibition of what a party of Americans, well armed and striving to save sorely-beset comrades, can do in the way of fighting. Of the savages surrounding the barrack containing Burke and Betron, not one escaped, and of the Americans not one was so much as wounded. Seeing this the natives in the building made a desperate effort to get away, but most of them were shot down.

SURVIVORS OF THE MASSACRE IN THE NATIVE BOAT

Masters of the Situation

Markley and Betron now found themselves at the head of sixteen men, with twenty-five rifles and abundant ammunition. They fled to the river and twenty-two men were crowded into a boat twenty-four feet long and thirty inches wide, a fact which seems incredible, but it was accomplished. The thirty-mile trip was trying and dangerous to the last degree. The savages pursued them in increasing numbers, and a severe sea fight, as it may be termed, took place. Two of the men died on the dreadful voyage, but Basay was finally reached, where the refugees were safe. Captain Bookmiller, with half his company, lost no time in starting for Balangigan, leaving Lieutenant Drouillard, with thirty men, to guard the wounded and his own post, which was in danger. The town was recaptured and

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER

the Stars and Stripes again hoisted on the flagpole, the place having been in the possession of the savages for only twenty-eight hours.

The estimated loss of the natives was more than two hundred. Of our troops, three officers and forty men were killed, with six more missing, among the former being the gallant Lieutenant Bumpus, who was found on his bed where he lay, some of his letters clutched in his hands, as he sank into the slumber which knows no awaking. Our dead were mutilated, some of the most fiendish atrocites having been committed by the native women with their two-edged daggers. Four of the wounded died after being taken to the hospital at Basay.

Official Statistics

An official statement prepared by Major James Parker, of the adjutant-general's office, covering the period of the Philippine insurrection between February 4, 1899, and April 30, 1902, showed that during that period there were 2,561 engagements with the enemy, and down to July 16, 1902, the number of troops sent to the Philippines was 4,135 officers and 123,803 men. The average strength maintained was 40,000. The casualties were: killed or died of wounds, 69 officers and 936 men; died from disease, 47 officers and 2,535 men; died from accidents, 6 officers and 125 men; drowned, 6 officers and 257 men; died by suicide, 10 officers and 72 men; murdered, 1 officer and 91 men; total deaths, 139 officers and 2,707 men; total wounded, 2,897. Killed or wounded and deaths other than by disease, 282 officers and 4,177 men; total 4,459. Percentage of killed and wounded to the strength of the army, 9.7 per cent.

William H. Taft, governor-general of the Philippines, was succeeded by Luke E. Wright in December, 1903, by Henry Clay Ide in 1905, James F. Smith in 1906, W. Cameron Forbes in 1909, and Francis Burton Harrison in 1913.

Government of the Philippines

The government was composed of a civil gòvernor and seven commissioners, of whom four were Americans, and three Filipinos. Congress, in May, 1908, added a member to the commission to be appointed by the President. There were four executive departments—Interior, Finance and Justice, Commerce and Police, and Public Instruction. The provinces were thirty-eight in number, and governments seemed to be well and firmly established.

CHAPTER III

ROOSEVELT'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION

1905–1909

[*Author's Note:* We are now fully launched in the sweep of the mighty current of the twentieth century. Brief as is the period already passed, it has been marked by events transcending in importance all that had gone before. Great as they were they were certain to be surpassed by those that were yet to come. We were on the verge of discoveries and achievements greater than any recorded in human annals. True, the happy day had not yet arrived when it might be said: "The war drums throb no longer, and the battle flags are furled." The Old World was convulsed by upheavals, and now and then there have been ominous mutterings in our own affairs, though up to this period blessed peace still reigned and wise diplomacy and the favoring smiles of heaven gave hope of its continuance. The trend of humanity and civilization is ever upward and toward the light, and the dawn of universal good will among nations and peoples seemed near at hand. Upon us devolved the duty of contributing our part toward bringing about that glorious era, when mankind should attain the sublime height which the Creator has placed within their reach.]

THE Republican National Convention met in Chicago, June 21, 1904, and unanimously nominated Theodore Roosevelt for the presidency, and Charles Warren Fairbanks, senator from Indiana, for the vice-presidency. On July 8, the Democratic National Convention, in St. Louis, placed in nomination for the corresponding offices, Judge Alton B. Parker, of New York, and Henry G. Davis, of Maryland. In the subsequent election, Mr. Roosevelt received 336 electoral votes to 140 cast for Judge Parker, none of the minor candidates receiving any electoral votes. On the popular vote, Mr. Roosevelt had 1,736,264 over all other candidates.

Theodore Roosevelt was inaugurated President, March 4, 1905, and chose for his Cabinet: Secretary of State, John Hay (died July

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

1, 1905) and succeeded by Elihu Root, of New York, July 6, 1905, succeeded by Robert Bacon, of New York, 1909; Secretary of the Treasury, Lyman J. Gage, of Illinois, succeeded by George B. Cortelyou, of New York, 1907; Secretary of War, William H. Taft, of Ohio, succeeded by Luke E. Wright, of Tennessee, 1908; Secretary of the Interior, Ethan A. Hitchcock, of Missouri, succeeded by James R. Garfield, of Ohio, 1907; Secretary of the Navy, John D. Long, of Mississippi, succeeded by William H. Moody, of Massachusetts, 1902, Paul Morton, of Illinois, 1904, Chas. J. Bonaparte, of Maryland, 1905, Victor H. Metcalf, of California, 1907, Truman H. Newberry, of Michigan, 1908; Secretary of Agriculture, James Wilson, of Iowa; Postmaster-General, Charles Emory Smith, of Pennsylvania, succeeded by Henry C. Payne, of Wisconsin, 1901, succeeded by Robert J. Wynne, of Pennsylvania, 1904, succeeded by George B. Cortelyou, of New York, 1905, succeeded by George von L. Meyer, of Massachusetts, 1907; Attorney-General, Philander C. Knox, of Pennsylvania, succeeded by William H. Moody, of Massachusetts, 1904, Chas. J. Bonaparte, of Maryland, 1907; Secretaries of Commerce and Labor, George B. Cortelyou, of New York, Victor H. Metcalf, of California, 1904, Oscar S. Straus, of New York, 1907.

The President's Cabinet

President Roosevelt's Grand Work

When President Roosevelt was inaugurated, the tremendous war between Russia and Japan was at its height. Japan astounded the world by her overwhelming victories on land and water. Despite the humiliating defeats of Russia, she fought on stubbornly, in the face of grave disorders at home. Her vast resources enabled her to continue the struggle indefinitely. The losses of life were so fearful that all nations were gratified when President Roosevelt induced Russia and Japan to consider the question of peace. The task thus undertaken by our chief executive was of the most delicate and difficult character, and it is extremely doubtful whether any other ruler would have succeeded in the circumstances.

On June 12, 1905, both belligerents agreed to appoint plenipotentiaries to discuss the terms of peace. Each country named two of its foremost statesmen, who held their first meeting at Portsmouth, N. H., on August 9. A seemingly hopeless deadlock over terms quickly developed, and the conference would have come to naught but for the tact and persistence of the President, who communicated directly with both emperors. As a consequence, imperial councils were held in St. Petersburg and Tokio. A peace agreement was

signed September 5, at the navy yard at Portsmouth, and the treaty of peace received the signatures of the emperor of Japan and the emperor of Russia, on October 14, 1905. This achievement gained the Nobel peace prize for President Roosevelt in 1906.

"The Lewis and Clark Centennial and American Pacific Exposi-

A PORTION OF CITY HALL, SAN FRANCISCO, BEFORE THE EARTHQUAKE

The Lewis and Clark Exposition

tion and Oriental Fair" was opened at Portland, Oregon, May 28, 1905, and throughout the following four months attracted thousands of delighted visitors from all parts of the civilized world. As indicated by its somewhat lengthy official title, the exposition embraced the story of exploration and heroic achievement; the chronicle and summary of the development in the new region that gave the Pacific coast to the United States; and the record of the

FOUR-STORY BUILDING AFTER THE EARTHQUAKE. FORTY LIVES WERE LOST IN THIS BUILDING

extension of American trade with the Orient along the pathway blazed by Lewis and Clark and beyond from the shores of the Pacific.

The San Francisco Earthquake and Fire

Early on the morning of April 18, 1906, San Francisco was desolated by the most appalling earthquake and fire in American history. The main shock lasted 40 seconds, diminished for 10, and then was violent for 25 seconds more. In the brief interval named, scores of buildings crashed to the earth, burying hundreds of people. The sewer connections, and water and gas mains were wrenched apart. Flames immediately broke out and completed the awful work of destruction. Three-fourths of San Francisco was wiped from the face of the earth, and more than 300,000 people were rendered homeless. Amid the pandemonium of terror and death, the sturdy little company of soldiers from the Presidio, the military station on the bay, aided by the city officials, restored order and sternly repressed all plundering.

The nation, always quick to respond to calls upon its sympathy, hurried relief to the stricken city. Cities, towns, and hamlets everywhere sent their contributions. The city of New York gave $4,000,000 and Congress appropriated $3,500,000. Even from far-away New Zealand came a generous offer, but President Roosevelt gratefully declined all such aid, holding that the calamity being wholly American, our own countrymen should not be denied the privilege of applying the bàlm to the sufferers.

The bravery and nerve displayed by San Francisco was beyond praise. While the flames were raging, plans were formulating for the rebuilding of the city on safe and enduring foundations, and on a more harmonious and beautiful plan than before. This has been done. The old picturesque town vanished forever, but a grander and more imposing one arose from its ashes.

Jamestown Exposition

The tercentennial of the first English settlement at Jamestown, Virginia, May 13, 1607, was celebrated in accordance with an act of Congress. It took the unique form of an invitation to all the nations of the world to send thither representative fleets of their navies and regiments of their armies, to meet in an international naval and marine rendezvous.

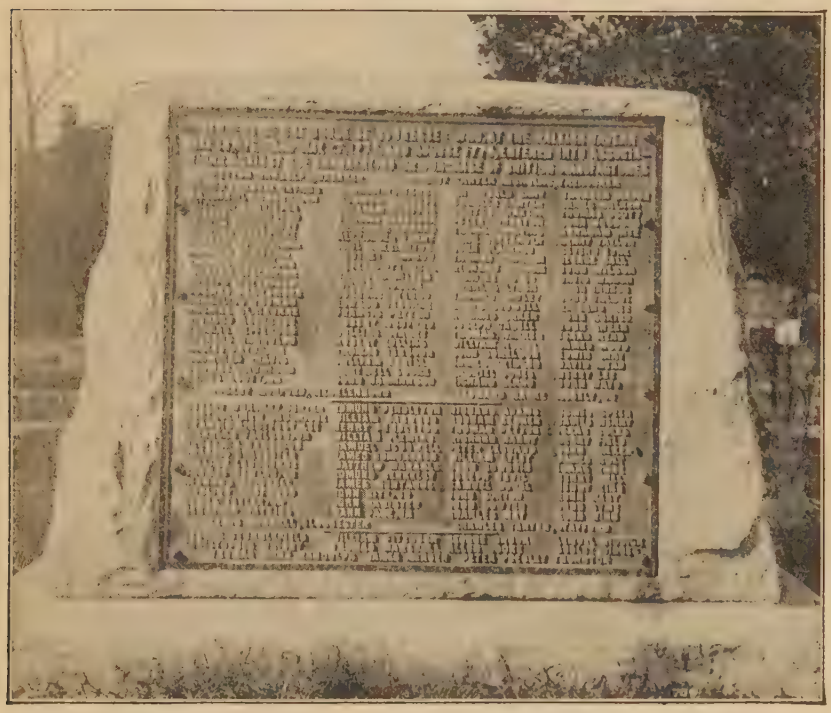
Oklahoma was admitted to the union, November 16, 1907, making the whole number of states 46. On October 1, 1908, the two-cent postage law between Great Britain and the United States went into

THE NEW SAN FRANCISCO

effect, and on January 1, 1909, the same rate was established between the United States and Germany.

Sailing of the Battle Fleet

The sailing of the United States "battle fleet" from Hampton Roads, for a trip around the world, on December 16, 1907, roused world-wide curiosity, mingled with misgiving and some criticism at home. What was the object of this cruise which had no parallel? What would be its effect upon other nations? These were the questions that many asked, and the answers were awaited with anxiety.



MEMORIAL TO THE HOUSE OF BURGESSES, JAMESTOWN EXPOSITION

Friction with Japan

The nation which most of us had in mind was Japan. Although that government and our own had always been on the friendliest terms, friction was threatened by hostile legislation in California, aimed against the Japanese, whose presence on the Pacific coast was believed to be inimical to the interests of the native population. The intervention of President Roosevelt, at critical times, did much to soothe the resentment in California.

President Roosevelt reviewed the majestic fleet, composed of sixteen battleships, as on that crisp winter morning it sailed out into

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER

the Atlantic, amid cheers and the booming of cannon, and steamed southward, under the command of the grizzled veteran, Rear-Admiral Robley D. Evans.

At South American Ports

The warmest of welcomes greeted the armada at every port. Rio Janeiro was reached, January 12. The shallow water shut out the vessels at Buenos Ayres, but Argentina did the honors with a guard of ships. Punta Arenas is the most southern city in the world, and there the leading Chilean officials received the fleet with a most cordial welcome. Debouching into the Pacific, the ships steamed northward to Valparaiso and Callao, where it was showered with honors by the Peruvian and Ecuadorean officials. Several days were spent at target practice in Magdalena Bay on the Mexican coast.

California

California outdid itself in the way of greetings. It looked as if all the cities and towns of the state had emptied themselves of their population, which flocked to the ports to welcome their countrymen and bid them God-speed on their voyage around the world.

Admiral Evans' health was so broken that he was forced to turn over his command at San Francisco to Admiral Charles S. Perry. After an imposing review, the fleet left the Pacific coast, May 7, for Honolulu, where it arrived three days later. Thence to Auckland, New Zealand, was the longest leg of the whole cruise, the distance being 3,800 miles. The time at sea was seventeen days, greater than between any other two ports.

Smooth and Rough Sailing

The voyage was mainly over smooth waters, but when so vast a distance is covered, the weather at times must be boisterous. The first storm into which the fleet ran was four days out of Auckland. It was rough all the way from Auckland to Sydney, across the Tasman Sea. The same was true in the Great Bight, south of Australia, where the vessels rolled heavily in those mountainous swells which sweep around the globe without hindrance. Between Manila and Yokohama, the ships plunged into a twisting typhoon and were somewhat scattered. The only remaining bad weather was met on the way home across the Atlantic.

Vast Extent of the Cruise

As has been said, the welcome everywhere was of the most ardent nature. The fleet visited every continent on the globe, North and South America, Australia, Asia, Africa, and Europe. The Arctic and Antarctic oceans were the only ones over which it did not sail. It crossed the equator four times and came near doing so again in

PRESENT DAY REGULATION UNIFORMS—1903

passing Singapore. It was greeted by the warships of Brazil, Argentina, Chile, Peru, Mexico, Japan, China, Turkey, Greece, Italy, and Great Britain. A Russian squadron was met at Gibraltar; French warships at the same place and at Morocco; a Danish ship at Gibraltar and a Portuguese warship at Port Said. PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Detached vessels visited various countries in the Mediterranean, among them being Turkey, Greece, Tripoli, Algiers, Morocco, Italy, and France. Sicily was devastated in the latter part of December by the most appalling earthquake in human annals. Valuable assistance was given the sufferers by detached members of the American fleet.

To specify some of the honors received by this majestic armada, after its departure from our shores, it was reviewed by the Presidents of Brazil, Chile, and Peru, the Mikado of Japan, the Khedive of Egypt, a Prince of China, and the King of Italy, while the King of Greece received some of the officers and dined on one of the ships. The fleet was also reviewed by the governor-generals of New Zealand and Australia and the governor of Ceylon. Honors

The two dramatic visits were to Australia and Japan. The enthusiasm at the former was beyond description. It was said that the entire Australian continent went crazy. At one time it looked as if American discipline would be swept to the winds, and hosts and guests would mingle in one general, indiscriminate, irrestrainable jollification. Australia

The Americans went to Japan with some doubt, but the depth and sincerity of the welcome there touched every heart. On the morning of October 18, the warships sailed into the harbor of Yokohama, where they received the unusual honor of a "consort escort", which was the accompaniment of each American ship by a Japanese vessel of the same class. One of the striking features was the assembling of 10,000 school children in a great park in Tokio, where they nearly split their little throats in brave attempts to sing "Hail Columbia", in English. Japan

The itinerary called for the arrival of the fleet, on its return, at Fort Monroe on Washington's birthday, 1909. On that day, fifteen of the sixteen ships dropped anchor in the broad roadstead. The *Maine* had returned some months before and joined the welcoming squadron of battleships and cruisers. The *Alabama* was absent and in the place of her and the *Maine*, were the *Wisconsin* and the The Return

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THE AMERICAN FLEET IN THE PACIFIC OCEAN

Nebraska, both built on the Pacific coast, and never before seen in an Atlantic seaport. Officers and men were happy to reach home, and wives, daughters, sweethearts, and relatives wept with joy, when clasped in the beloved arms once more. The jackies had been gone a year, two months and six days, and had completed a journey of 45,000 miles.

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

The cruise was highly beneficial in every respect. The training in gunnery, in evolutions and in handling the ships put the fleet in better fighting trim than any other in the world, except that of Great Britain, while the respect of all nations for the naval power of the United States was more profound than ever before.

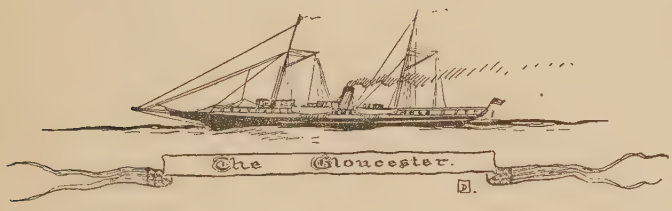
Good Results

On the charge of accepting rebates from the Chicago & Alton railway, the Standard Oil Company, of Indiana, was declared guilty in a trial before Judge Kenesaw Mountain Landis, of the United States district court, sitting in Chicago. The verdict was rendered April 13, 1907, whereupon Judge Landis imposed the stupendous fine of $29,240,000. On appeal the case went to the United States circuit court of appeals, which reversed the decision and ordered a new trial. This ended March 10, 1909, in the absolute acquittal of the Standard Oil Company, Judge A. B. Anderson having instructed the jury to bring in such a verdict.

Acquittal of Standard Oil Company

Grover Cleveland, the only living ex-President at the time, died at his home in Princeton, N. J., on June 24, 1908. He was buried with simple honors beside the body of his eldest daughter Ruth, who passed to her rest some three years before. Mr. Cleveland was an honest, patriotic statesman, who ranks among our best presidents, and his loss was mourned by all his countrymen.

Death of Grover Cleveland



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TRAVELING UNDER DIFFICULTIES

EXPLANATION.
Hudson 1607
Ross 1818
Parry 1820
Dease & Simpson 1837
Franklin 1845
McClure 1850-54
Collinson 1850-55
German Exped. 1870
Kane 1853-55
Nordenskiold 1878-79
De Long 1879-82
Greely 1881-84
Nansen 1893-96
Peary 1898-1902
Sverdrup 1898-1902
Amundsen 1903-06
Peary 1908-09
Meridian
Greenwich
Cagni (Abruzzi Exp.) Apr. 25, 1900 86° 33
NORTH POLE
Peary Apr. 6, 1909
Peary Apr. 26, 1906 87° 6
Nansen Apr. 14 1895 86° 14
Franz Josef Land
Spitzbergen
Nova Zembla
Barents Sea
Kara Sea
Greenland
Siberia
Taimur Pen.
Lofoden Islands
White Sea
Hudson Bay
Baffin Bay
Davis Strait
Behring Sea
Behring Strait
Beaufort Sea
Liakof Is.
New Siberia
Wrangel Land
Herald Isl.
Jeannette sunk June 12 1881
Wrangel 1820-23
Long 1867
Berry 1881
Kellett 1849
Rodgers 1855
Collinson 1850
Elson 1826
Cook 1778
Parry 1827
Lambert 1670
Scoresby 1806
Nordenskjold 1868
Hudson 1607
Barents 1596
Willoughby 1553
Borough 1556
Chancellor 1553
Pushkarev
Mezen
Archangel
Dwina
Onega
Kem
Tornea
Sweaborg
Stockholm
Lofoden Islands
Tromsoe
Hammerfest
North C.
Kola
Kolguef Isl.
Matthew Isl.
Gulf of Ob
Yalmal Pen.
Yenisei Bay
Khatanga
Anabara
Lena
Yana
Indigirka
Kolyma
Chukotski Pen.
Behring Sea
Behring Strait
Beaufort Sea
Mackenzie R.
Point Barrow
Point Hope
Kotzebue Sd.
Norton Sd.
Yukon R.
Alaska
Aleutian Is.
Unalaska
Ounalaska
Kodiak
Sitka
Vancouver
Victoria
Nootka
Columbia R.
San Francisco
Monterey
Acapulco
Panama
Galapagos Is.
Lima
Valparaiso
Cape Horn
Falkland Is.
Port Stanley
Buenos Ayres
Rio Janeiro
Bahia
Pernambuco
Cape Verde Is.
Canary Is.
Madeira
Azores
Lisbon
Gibraltar
Malta
Alexandria
Suez
Red Sea
Aden
Bombay
Madras
Calcutta
Rangoon
Singapore
Java
Sumatra
Borneo
Celebes
Moluccas
Philippines
Manila
Hong Kong
Canton
Shanghai
Yokohama
Japan
Kamchatka
Okhotsk
Petropaulovski
Behring Is.
Copper Is.
Commander Is.
Kuril Is.
Saghalien
Vladivostock
Gulf of Tartary
Amoor R.
Nertchinsk
Irkutsk
Yakutsk
Verkhoyansk
Yana R.
Indigirka R.
Kolyma R.
Lena R.
Olenek R.
Khatanga R.
Anabara R.
Taimur R.
Yenisei R.
Obi R.
Petchora R.
Mezen R.
Dwina R.
Onega R.
Ladoga L.
Archangel
Kem
Tornea
Sweaborg
Stockholm
Lofoden Islands
Tromsoe
Hammerfest
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Panama
Galapagos Is.
Lima
Valparaiso
Cape Horn
Falkland Is.
Port Stanley
Buenos Ayres
Rio Janeiro
Bahia
Pernambuco
Cape Verde Is.
Canary Is.
Madeira
Azores
Lisbon
Gibraltar
Malta
Alexandria
Suez
Red Sea
Aden
Bombay
Madras
Calcutta
Rangoon
Singapore
Java
Sumatra
Borneo
Celebes
Moluccas
Philippines
Manila
Hong Kong
Canton
Shanghai
Yokohama
Japan
Kamchatka
Okhotsk
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Behring Is.
Copper Is.
Commander Is.
Kuril Is.
Saghalien
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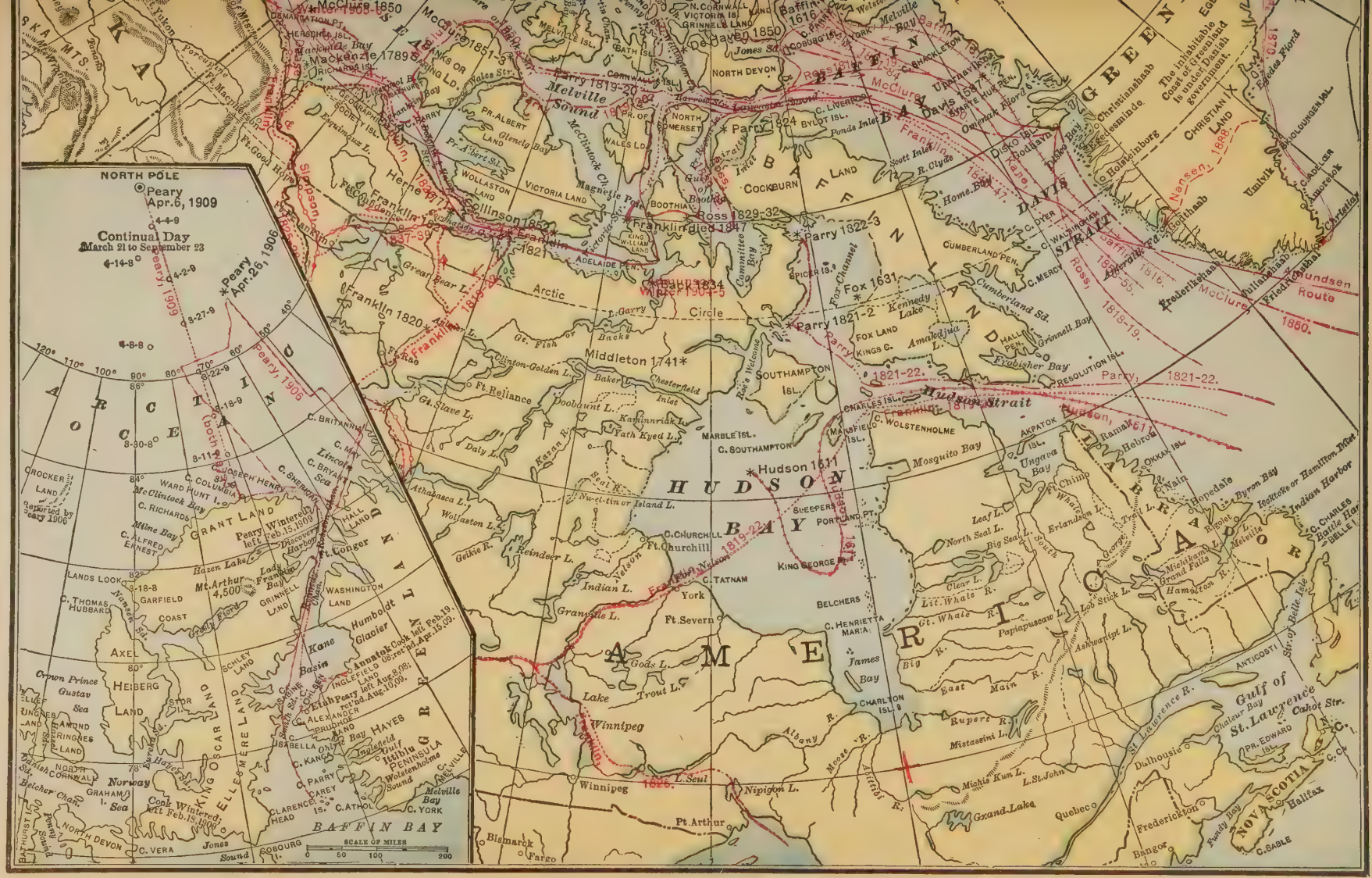
Gulf of Tartary
Amoor R.
Nertchinsk
Irkutsk
Yakutsk
Verkhoyansk
Yana R.
Indigirka R.
Kolyma R.
Lena R.
Olenek R.
Khatanga R.
Anabara R.
Taimur R.
Yenisei R.
Obi R.
Petchora R.
Mezen R.
Dwina R.
Onega R.
Ladoga L.


NORTH POLE
Peary
Apr. 6, 1909
Continual Day
March 21 to September 23
Peary
Apr. 25, 1906
Peary, 1905
Peary, 1899
Cook, 1908-09
Cook Wintered, left Feb. 15, 1908
Peary Wintered, left Feb. 15, 1909
Peary, 1906
Cook left Feb. 19, 1909; rec'd Apr. 15, 09.
Peary left Aug. 8, 09; rec'd Aug. 10, 09.
ARCTIC OCEAN
GRANT LAND
GREENLAND
ELLESMERE LAND
KING OSCAR LAND
HEIBERG LAND
Crown Prince Gustav Sea
Norway
Greely Fiord
Lady Franklin Bay
Discovery Harbor
Ft. Conger
Hazen Lake
Mt. Arthur 4,500
Peary Channel
Nansen Sound
Jones Sound
Smith Sound
Kane Basin
Humboldt Glacier
Inglefield Gulf
Hayes Sound
Wolstenholme Sound
Melville Bay
BAFFIN BAY
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200
Franklin 1820
Franklin 1825
Franklin 1826-27
Franklin 1845-47
Franklin 1847
Franklin 1848-49
Franklin 1850
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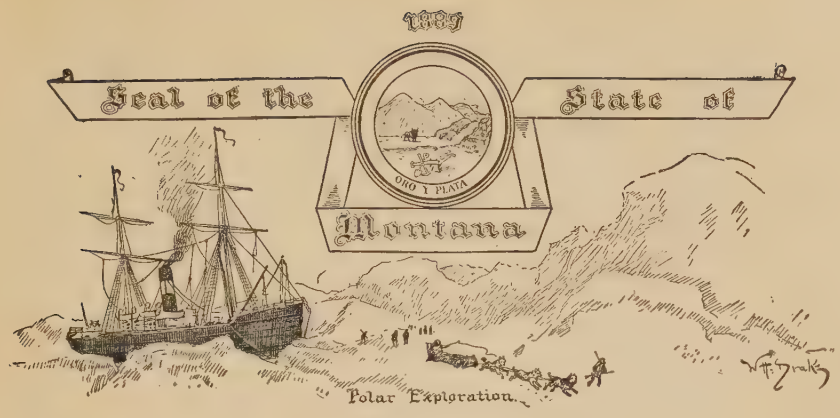

CHAPTER IV

NORTH POLE—PRIBILOF ISLANDS

[*Author's Note:* The "Divine Unrest" that prompts man to endeavor high achievement, has impelled him for centuries to invade the eternally frozen solitudes about the North Pole. Baffled, turned back, often destroyed, those daring explorers have been followed by others equally daring until the great feat was accomplished. The Stars and Stripes was unfurled on the northernmost point of the earth, and the wonderful deed was done.

This chapter includes also an account of the very important negotiations relating to the provisions made for the protection of the great seal herds in the Alaskan waters.

Authorities are Commander Robert E. Peary, U. S. N., General A. W. Greely, papers of the American Geographic Society, and other official publications.]

THE various phases of Arctic exploration are given in other chapters. We now record the final triumph in the long strife for the North Pole. Lieutenant Robert E. Peary, of the United States navy, had been connected with a number of expeditions into the Arctic regions. He had made five different attempts to reach the North Pole, but for one cause or another had been compelled to return disappointed. Now, backed by the confidence and financial support of scientific societies and individuals, he prepared for his sixth polar expedition.

On July 6, 1908, in his specially prepared vessel, the *Roosevelt*, he set sail from New York, and proceeded to Cape Sabine and Etah, Greenland, there taking on Eskimos, dogs, food supplies, coal, etc. From this point he sent back his coal ship, the *Erik*, and late in August steamed northward. He was equipped for a three years' sojourn in the ice.

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

He was not heard from again until September 6, 1909, when dispatches came from him, dated at Indian Harbor, Labrador, stating that he had reached the North Pole on April 6, 1909. Later came his story in detail, from which the following summary is taken:

On the afternoon of August 18, 1908, the *Roosevelt*, bearing the North Polar Expedition of the Peary Arctic Club, steamed out of Etah Ford for Cape Sabine. Beside the crew and regular supplies, there were on board 22 Eskimo men, 17 women, 10 children, 226 dogs, and the carcasses of 40 odd walrus. At the mouth of the Sheridan river, the *Roosevelt* laid up in the ice for the winter. Hunting parties were sent out to increase the stores of provisions, and sledging parties began the distribution of supplies on the proposed route northward. The winter was spent in scientific explorations and observations. At the middle of February, 1909, the march northward began in divisions. The total of all the divisions was 7 members of the party, 59 Eskimos, 140 dogs, and 23 sledges. The march due north began March 1. By the 14th, the outfit was cut down to 16 men, 12 sledges, and 100 dogs. At latitude 86° 15′ the farthest north of Nansen and Abruzzi was passed, and the party was further reduced. At the 88th parallel, the last of the supporting parties turned back. The expedition now consisted of Commander Peary, his negro attendant, Henson, four Eskimos, 5 sledges with supplies for forty days, and 42 dogs. In the next five marches 130 miles were covered; the going was good, the ice being smooth and solid, and the thermometer rising to 15° below

LIEUTENANT ROBERT E. PEARY

The March for the Pole

zero. On April 5, 1909, an observation indicated latitude 89° 57′—practically 90°. Here at last was the Pole! Peary wrote in his journal, "The Pole at last! The prize of three centuries, my dream and goal for twenty years, mine at last! I cannot bring myself to realize it. It all seems so simple and commonplace."

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COMMANDER ROBERT E. PEARY
In Arctic Costume

Peary spent thirty hours about the Pole, going ten miles in one direction beyond his camp and eight miles in another, in order to be sure of covering the exact location. The sky was cloudless and conditions were perfect for taking observations and photographs. The horizon was searched in vain for any indications of land. No opening could be found in the ice so as to take a sounding. The minimum temperature during the thirty hours' stay at the Pole was 33° below zero, maximum, 12° below.

On April 7, the return journey began. Five miles from the Pole, a crevice in the ice was found through which a hole was made with a pickax. The sounding wire was let down to its full length of 1,500 fathoms without reaching the bottom. On the return trip they made rapid

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From the Original Painting by J. Steeple Davis

PEARY'S PLAN OF JOURNEYING TO THE POLE

progress, being able to backtrack on their trail nearly all the way. On April 23, they reached Crane City at Cape Columbia. After sleeping and eating to their full content, two marches brought them to the *Roosevelt*. The vessel was able to break out of her moorings July 18, and on September 5, reached Indian Harbor, whence Peary flashed the news of his success to the waiting world.

A striking episode connected with the discovery of the North Pole interested and excited the whole world for a time. On Septem-

SKINNING A BEAR ON THE ICE

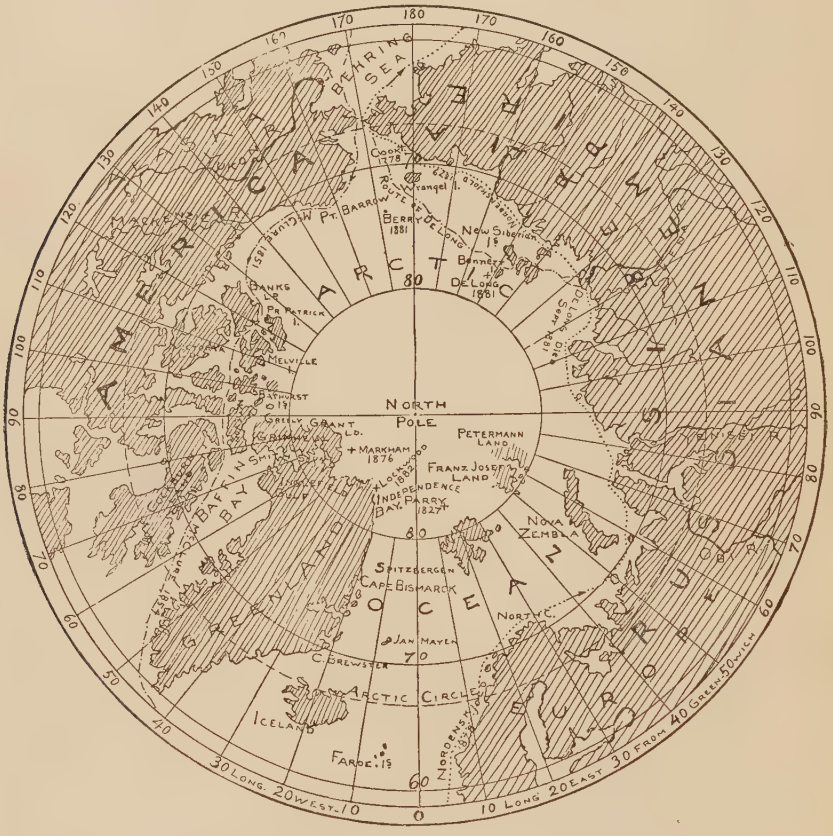
ber 1, 1909, five days before Commander Peary announced his discovery, the world was thrilled by a cablegram from Lerwick, Shetland Islands, sent by Dr. Frederick A. Cook, stating that he had reached the North Pole, April 21, 1908. This news was so unexpected, and so little was known of Dr. Cook by the general public, that it created a great sensation.

Dr. Cook's Sensational Claim

Cook gave what purported to be a circumstantial account of his journey to the Pole and return. Few events in history have aroused such world-wide interest and enthusiasm as the return of Dr. Cook to civilization after his announcement. He was received upon his

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

landing at Copenhagen, September 4, 1909, by royalty, representatives of the scientific and civic bodies, and correspondents of the press of the world. Special honors were conferred upon him by the universities and societies of Europe, and, upon his arrival in New York, he was received with the same enthusiasm he had met in the Old World.



REGION AROUND THE NORTH POLE

Dr. Cook's Claim Disputed by Peary

As soon as Commander Peary was advised of the claims of Dr. Cook, he promptly disputed them, and branded him as a fakir and impostor. Finally, both Commander Peary and Dr. Cook submitted their records and papers to the scientific authorities of the world. It was the general verdict that Peary's report was fully verified by his data, while the University of Denmark, after examining Dr. Cook's papers reported: "The material transmitted for

examination contains no proof that Dr. Cook reached the Pole." PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Although the scientific world and the public generally settled to the opinion that Dr. Cook was a colossal fakir, nevertheless, many pointed to the fact that his report was published before the report of Peary appeared, and that his description of physical and meteorological conditions on the journey to and at the Pole was practically identical with the actual conditions as found and described by Peary.

Peary the Real Discoverer of the North Pole

However, Peary was acclaimed as the real discoverer of the North Pole, and received the highest honors from the scientific world, and from the United States navy, of which he was a conspicuous member.

The following table of latitudes reached by Arctic explorers during the past three hundred years was compiled by General A. W. Greely:

Eastern Hemisphere			Western Hemisphere		
Year	Explorer	Latitude	Year	Explorer	Latitude
1594.	William Barents	77° 20′	1587.	John Davis	72° 12′
1596.	Ryp and Heemskerck	79° 49′	1607.	Henry Hudson	73°
1607.	Henry Hudson	80° 23′	1616.	William Baffin	77° 45′
1773.	J. C. Phipps	80° 48′	1852.	E. A. Inglefield	78° 21′
1806.	William Scoresby	81° 30′	1854.	E. K. Kane	80° 10′
1827.	W. E. Parry	82° 45′	1870.	C. F. Hall	82° 11′
1868.	Nordenskjold and Otter	81° 42′	1871.	C. F. Hall	82° 07′
1874.	Weyprecht and Payer	82° 05′	1875.	G. S. Nares	82° 48′
1895.	Dr. Nansen	86° 15′	1876.	G. S. Nares	83° 20′
			1882.	A. W. Greely	83° 24′

The above table does not include the great triumph of Lieutenant Peary on April 5, 1909.

The Pribilof Islands

At this point it is appropriate to give a brief account of another important event transpiring in the region of the Arctic waters. It was some years after the purchase of Alaska by the United States from Russia, that the Pribilof islands, which are the breeding-grounds of the fur seal, were leased to the Alaska Commercial Company, which was granted a monopoly of seal-killing under stringent regulations intended to prevent the extermination of the animals.

This industry was so valuable that no vigilance of the government in guarding the islands could prevent wholesale poaching by American and Canadian vessels, which pursued the seals upon the open sea. To stop this, our government in 1886 set up the claim that Bering Sea was *mare clausum* (a closed sea), and asserted its jurisdiction over the eastern half. When Russia ceded the country to us in 1867 she claimed to grant such rights of jurisdiction, but, unfortunately for us now, we had protested in 1822 against Russia's

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

claim of the right of sovereignty outside the usual three-mile limit of territorial jurisdiction.

This new doctrine led to the governmental seizure of many Canadian and American sealers, for which Great Britain claimed damages. Considerable negotiation followed, when it was agreed to submit the question to arbitration, which was also to decide upon the best methods for preserving the seals from extinction. The United States appointed as its two arbitrators Justice John M. Harlan, of

WHOLESALE SLAUGHTER OF SEALS

the supreme court, and Senator John T. Morgan; Great Britain, Lord Hannen and Sir John S. D. Thompson; France, Baron de Courcel; Italy, the Marquis Emilio Visconti-Venosta; and Sweden and Norway, Gregers W. W. Gram.

Decision Against the American Claim

The tribunal began its sessions in Paris, March 23, 1893, and rendered its decision on the 15th of the following August. This decision was against the American claim to exclusive jurisdiction of any sort over the waters of Bering Sea outside the three-mile territorial limit, established a close season for seals in those waters from May 1 to July 31, and forbade pelagic sealing within sixty

miles of the Pribilof islands, sealing in steam vessels or with fire-arms, the regulations to be carried out by the British and American governments concurrently.

Provisions of the Regulations

The regulations bound Great Britain equally with the United States to forbid her subjects to kill, capture, or pursue at any time or in any manner fur seals within a zone of sixty miles around the Pribilof islands, or during the breeding season in any part of the Pacific, inclusive of Bering Sea, situated north of the 35th degree of north latitude, or eastward of the 180th degree of longitude.

Great Britain was dissatisfied with the award, and the Canadian sealers thought the proposed close season too long, the extent of the prohibited zone too great, and the regulations too severe. There was delay in the necessary legislation in England, which was not effected there nor in the United States until April, 1894. The question left for adjudication was that concerning the compensation due to sealers whose vessels were illegally seized by United States cutters prior to the establishment of a close season in 1890.

Congressional Action

The American bill passed Congress and received the President's signature on April 6, and was put into effect by proclamation four days later. There was some criticism upon the British bill, as not being in exact accordance with the agreement, but it became operative on the 23d of April. By these measures the close season was made legally binding only upon British, American, and Russian subjects. Vessels of other nations were left free to enter and fish in Bering Sea, but the United States determined to seize all poachers, taking the risk of the suits for damages that might follow.

President Cleveland's Recommendation

President Cleveland in his message to Congress recommended the payment of the sum of $425,000 to Great Britain for damages done to British subjects by the action of the United States cruisers in Bering Sea, adding that these claims of the Canadian sealers had received thorough examination by both governments "upon the principles as well as the facts involved."

Further investigation proved, however, that more than one-half of the damages claimed were of the consequential kind. In other words, they consisted of constructive losses in the form of seals that would or might have been taken had not such vessels been warned to keep out of Bering Sea. The tribunal of arbitration had not passed upon this phase of the question, and justice required therefore that we should be governed by precedent. The most authoritative

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

precedent was set by the *Alabama* tribunal at Geneva in 1871, which ruled out all consideration of constructive and consequential damages.

Congress Refutes Claims

Eighteen vessels claimed damages, but it was proved that ten of them belonged to American citizens, the firm of Warren & Boscovitz, of San Francisco, who made a fictitious transfer of their property to an English blacksmith named Cooper. For these reasons Congress refused to vote the payment of a sum that was nearly ten times as large as it should have been.

A LONELY HOME IN THE ARCTIC REGIONS

By this time it had become apparent to experts that the regulations recommended by the tribunal of 1893, and subsequently put in force in both Great Britain and the United States, were wholly inadequate to accomplish the purpose intended. Unless more stringent laws were enacted and enforced, the seals in a few years would become as scarce as the bison. Commander C. E. Clark, in his report to the Navy Department, said:

Danger to the Seals

"Upward of 30,000 seals were captured this year (1894) in Bering Sea after the 31st of July, and of these nearly 25,000 were females. A careful estimate, made early in September, showed that 9,300 pups had already died of starvation on the rookeries, and that about

an equal number would later perish in the same miserable manner, half of them being females. About 33,000 were lost, and the reproductive power of the herd has been lowered from 10 to 20 per cent. The success that has attended pelagic sealing this year, and the knowledge that has been obtained of methods that can be followed and of grounds that may be resorted to advantageously, will probably double the number of vessels engaged, and increase the catch proportionately the coming season. The loss as before will fall where it is most to be dreaded, *i. e.*, upon the females. While the disparity in the number of each sex taken has been determined, the reasons for it are not known. In my opinion, the male seals which are not able to fight their way on the rookeries retire as far as they are compelled to by the bulls in possession, and no farther; while the females, who have young to suckle, leave, when impregnated, for the feeding-grounds, which seem, most unfortunately, to be well outside of the prohibited zone."

An Enormous Catch

Although an extensive patrol was maintained, the pelagic catch in the North Pacific in 1894, including Bering Sea, reached the enormous total of from 130,000 to 142,000 seals. For 1895, the United States decided to intrust the work of patrol to vessels in the revenue-cutter service exclusively, four of which were promptly selected. On March 3, 1895, the House passed a bill authorizing the President to conclude and proclaim a *modus vivendi* with the governments of Great Britain, Russia, and Japan providing for new regulations for the preservation of the seal herd, and in case of failure to arrange such *modus vivendi* on or before May 1, 1896, all the seals, male and female, to be found on Pribilof islands were to be destroyed. In other words, the United States determined to kill the entire seal herd as the only way of preventing the Canadian poachers from stealing it.

Provision for a Joint Commission

The failure of Congress to vote a settlement of the claims for damages made by the British sealers that had been seized, delayed joint action by the two governments for the protection of the seals that were threatened with extermination. Finally, it was reported on November 13, 1895, that a convention looking towards the settlement of the claims of Canadian sealers had been negotiated by Sir Julian Pauncefote, the British ambassador at Washington, and Secretary of State Olney, after consultation with Premier Sir Mackenzie Bowell and Minister of Justice Sir C. Hibbert Tupper, representing the Canadian government. The provision was for a

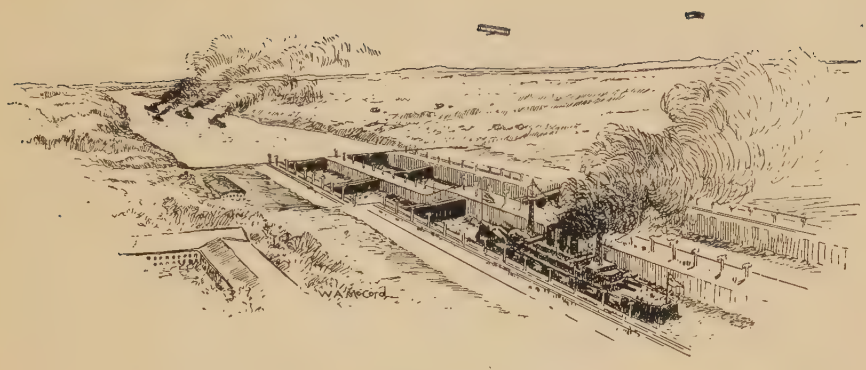
PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

joint commission consisting of one representative each from Great Britain and the United States to meet at Victoria, B. C., to assess the damages suffered by the Canadians. In case of a failure to agree by the two commissioners, a third was to be chosen. If such umpire could not be agreed upon, he should be named by the President of the Swiss republic.

It was reported that about 40,000 seal-skins, of which 80 per cent were from females, were taken in Bering Sea in 1895, after July 31, when the close season ended, and that 27,000 dead pups were counted, all of which had perished from starvation at the rookeries.

Treaty Ratified by the Senate

On April 15, 1896, the treaty between the United States and Great Britain, providing for the appointment of a commission to assess damages arising out of illegal seizures of British sealing vessels, was ratified by the Senate. On June 3, ratifications of the convention were exchanged in London, and several days later the full text was made public. The place of meeting was changed from Vancouver, B. C., to San Francisco, Cal., and a bill appropriating $75,000 to defray the expenses of the United States in the joint commission was passed and approved by President Cleveland, May 8. On December 17, 1897, the commissioners awarded $473,151.26 against the United States.



CHAPTER V

TAFT'S ADMINISTRATION

1909–1913

[*Author's Note:* The beneficent work of the Reclamation Service is adding hundreds of millions to the material wealth of our country. The desert is made to blossom as the rose, and the waste places have become gardens of beauty and productiveness. The North and the South Poles have been reached, and the air conquered; research and inventions are adding their marvelous revelations to the knowledge of man. No one dare guess when the limit of human achievement will be reached. The field is fascinating and may well engage the God-given faculties of the wisest of mankind.

Authorities for the wonderful facts set forth in this chapter are the numberless reports and records of the day.]

ON June 18, 1908, the National Republican Convention, meeting in Chicago, nominated William Howard Taft, of Ohio, for the presidency, and James Schoolcraft Sherman, of New York, for the vice-presidency. At Denver, Colorado, on July 10, the Democratic Convention placed William Jennings Bryan in nomination for the third time, while John W. Kern, of Indiana, was a candidate for the minor office. The Republican nominees received 321 electoral votes and the Democrats 162. The Republican majority on the popular vote was 1,233,494 over Bryan, with 411,314 over all.

William Howard Taft was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, September 15, 1857, being a son of Judge Alphonso Taft, who at one time was a member of President Grant's Cabinet. He was graduated from Yale in 1878, second in a class of 120. Having studied law,

he served as assistant prosecutor of Hamilton county, Ohio, became collector of internal revenue for the second district, resigned to practice law, and married, at the age of 29, Miss Helen Herron. He served for a period as judge of the superior court of Hamilton county, Ohio, until he was appointed by President Harrison solicitor-

VICE-PRESIDENT JAMES SHERMAN

general of the United States. He won several important cases for the government, during the three years he held the office. He then became judge of the federal court for the sixth district, which includes Ohio, Michigan, Kentucky and Tennessee. He did admirable service for seven years. President McKinley, in 1900, sent

Taft as a Federal Judge

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

him to the Philippines, first as president of the Philippine commission, and then as the first civil governor of the islands. Returning in 1904, he succeeded Elihu Root as Secretary of War. While holding the office, he made two trips to the Philippines, went to Rome to see the Pope regarding Philippine matters, visited Russia, went to Cuba (settling a threatened revolution in the island), made

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PHILANDER C. KNOX, SECRETARY OF STATE

a flying trip to Panama to inspect the isthmian canal, and circled the globe. In the period 1900-1904 he three times declined appointment to the supreme court bench, his life ambition, he deeming it his duty at the time to continue the work in which he was engaged. After his election to the presidency, he made another trip to Panama, and toured extensively in the Southern states, being welcomed everywhere and making hosts of friends. No President ever began his administration with more universal good wishes than he.

Sacrifices Ambition for Duty

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Amid a wild storm of snow and sleet, William Howard Taft was inaugurated twenty-seventh President of the United States, on March 4, 1909. So bad was the weather that, although against his wishes, he took the oath of office in the Senate Chamber, the first time such a thing had been done since President Jefferson's second administration in 1805. Presidents John Adams, James Madison,

The Inauguration

HON. J. M. DICKINSON, SECRETARY OF WAR

James Monroe, John Quincy Adams, and Andrew Jackson took the oath of office in the House of Representatives. All the other Presidents have been installed in public at the east entrance to the Capitol, as Mr. Taft hoped to be.

The Cabinet

On the next day he sent to the Senate the following nominations as members of his Cabinet, all of whom were confirmed: Secretary of State, Philander C. Knox, of Pennsylvania; Secretary of the Treasury, Franklin MacVeagh, of Illinois; Secretary of War, Jacob

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

McGavock Dickinson, of Tennessee, Henry L. Stimson, of New York (1911); Secretary of the Navy, George von L. Meyer, of Massachusetts; Secretary of Agriculture, James Wilson, of Iowa; Secretary of the Interior, Richard A. Ballinger, of Washington, Walter L. Fisher, of New York (1911); Secretary of Commerce and Labor, Charles Nagel, of Missouri; Attorney-General, George W. Wickersham, of New York; Postmaster-General, Frank H. Hitchcock, of Massachusetts.

Roosevelt Leaves for Africa

When the inauguration of President Taft was over, ex-President Roosevelt having become a private citizen, lost no time in starting upon a long-anticipated wild-animal hunt in East Africa. He sailed from New York, March 23, 1909, as the agent of the Smithsonian Institution, and from time to time sent home valuable consignments of birds, beasts, and reptiles, which he had bagged in that paradise of game.

Reception Abroad

The long, successful hunt being over, the Colonel and his party emerged from barbarism into civilization, arriving at Khartum, March 15, 1910. He was met there by his wife and daughter, who henceforward kept him company. He received many honors from the rulers and highest officials of the European countries through which he passed on his leisurely return homeward. He arrived in New York, June 18, 1910, and received a warm and enthusiastic welcome from his fellow citizens.

The lure of the wilds again drew him irresistibly, this time to South America, whither he sailed October 3, 1913. In those perilous regions he approached death nearer perhaps than ever before. But his usual good fortune stood by him and he reached his native land again in May, 1914, considerably the worse for wear. He was soon himself again, however, and became as active in politics as ever.

Great events marked the opening years of the twentieth century, and gave distinction to the administration of President Taft. Among the most beneficent works undertaken by our government

Saving Our Forests

was that of saving our wealth of forests from destruction. The cutting of valuable trees by wholesale threatened grave, if not irreparable, injury to the prosperity of the country at large. The national forests in 1910 had an area equal to the immense states of Texas and Ohio combined, with a money value of two billion dollars. Adding the privately owned forests, the total area was very nearly one-third of that of the United States, excluding Alaska.

From February 1, 1905, the administration of the Forest Service was under the direction of the Secretary of Agriculture. From January 1, 1909, the central administrative force was located in Washington, with six administrative district headquarters. Every field district was in charge of a district forester and an assistant district forester, and each of the different lines of service work was directed by a specially appointed officer. The main problems were the replanting of forests that had been cut away, so as to control and regulate the flow of streams directly supplying water to cities and towns, and the planting of trees where they were lacking in the national domain of the Middle West.

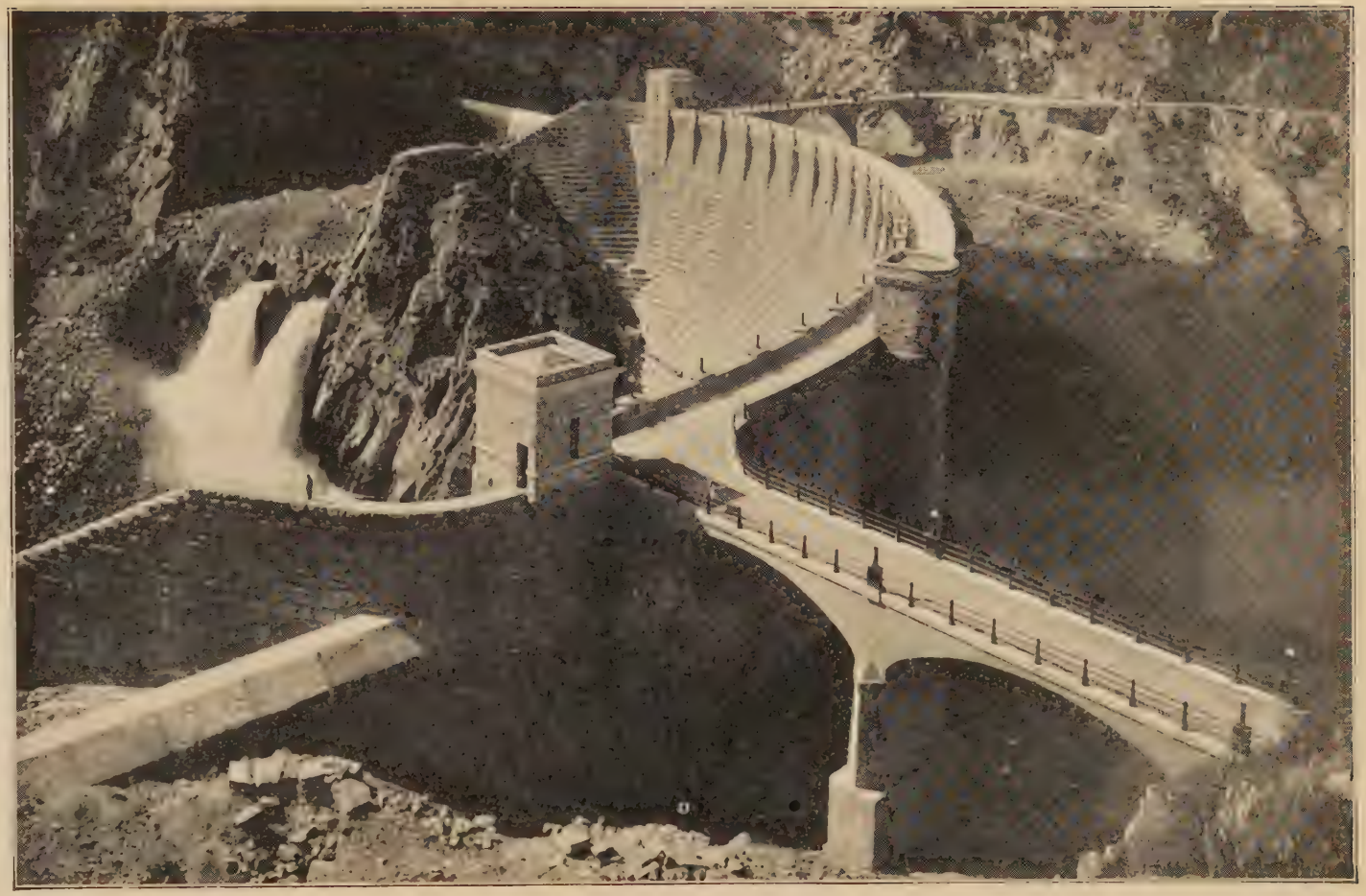
Methods Employed

One of the marvels of the world was the Reclamation Service of the United States, which had provided and was still providing homes for hundreds of thousands of settlers, by turning arid lands into regions of fertility. Deserts, larger in area than some of our states, which from time immemorial had grown only the cactus and sage brush, were transformed into farms that yielded the finest of fruits and the most bountiful harvests. The simple method by which all this had been accomplished was that of storing the waters of streams into immense reservoirs and serving it out to the parched lands, which responded by blossoming as the rose. The highest dam in existence at that time (310 feet) was constructed on the northern border of Wyoming and created the largest lake in that state. The Roosevelt dam, in a narrow gorge of the Salt river, Arizona, had a base which covered an acre of ground. It was completed in the summer of 1910, and reclaimed a section larger in extent than the states of Connecticut and Rhode Island. The wonderful inland empire thus brought into being soon exceeded 10,000,000 acres.

Reclamation Service of the United States

The First Aviators

Everyone, in these latter days, is deeply interested in aviation, or the science of navigating the air. The first persons to ascend from the earth in a balloon were the Montgolfier brothers, a couple of Frenchmen, who climbed into the sky in the month of June, 1783, using hot air as the lifting power. They were soon followed by others who employed hydrogen. It is a remarkable fact that for a hundred and more years following, aerostation made no real progress. Men inflated enormous globes of silk with gas lighter than the atmosphere and were thus lifted into space, where the machine was the plaything of the currents of air. Some of them attained great

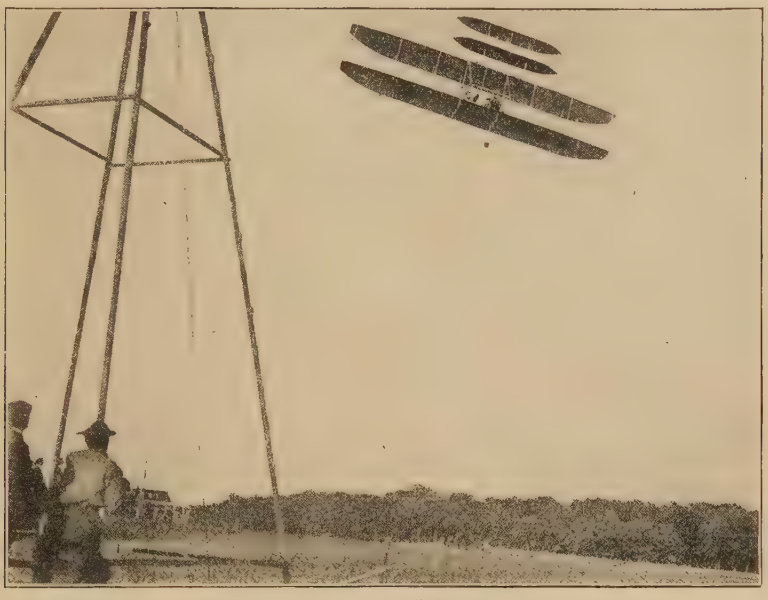


ROOSEVELT DAM, ARIZONA

heights. Glasher and Coxwell, in September, 1862, reached the astounding altitude of seven miles, both nearly dying because of the cold and rarity of the atmosphere. Balloons with registers and no passengers were sent to a height of ten miles.

First Successful Aeroplane

By and by scientific men and inventors began to think of using machines that were heavier than the air, in like manner as birds do in their flights. The first successful flight, in an aeroplane, was made by the Wright brothers, Wilbur and Orville, of Dayton, Ohio, December 17, 1903. It took them two years to obtain perfect control



WRIGHT BROTHERS' AEROPLANE

over their machine. All Europe wondered when Santos-Dumont, at Paris, on November 13, 1906, made a flight of 720 feet.

On July 25, M. Bleriot crossed the English Channel in his monoplane. This exploit was duplicated in May, 1910, by Count Jacques de Lesseps, and in the following month, Captain Charles Stewart Rolls, in a Wright aeroplane, not only flew across the Channel but returned without stopping. The most amazing exploit about this time was the flight of Glenn H. Curtiss from Albany to New York City, with only one stop at Poughkeepsie. To show his mastery of his machine, Mr. Curtiss indulged in "swoops, glides, darts, figure-eighting and cross-country dashes." The noteworthy fact about the

Flight of Glenn H. Curtiss

U. S. ARMORED CRUISER "BROOKLYN"

flights of aviators was not the speed they attained, but the absolute control of their flying machines. It was already evident that within a brief period the "air men" would be as much at home hundreds of feet above the earth as were bicyclists, automobilists and the drivers of ordinary carriages on the surface.

Still more extraordinary feats have followed, and in the Great War in Europe in 1914, these earlier dreams have been realized, and the aviators played a most valuable part for their respective governments.

The greatest number of people that ever met together in the

REPRODUCTION—"HALF MOON"—HUDSON-FULTON CELEBRATION

The Hudson-Fulton Celebration

Western hemisphere were assembled in New York City, September 25 to October 9, 1909, for the Hudson-Fulton celebration in commemoration of the 300th anniversary of the discovery of the Hudson river, and the 100th anniversary of the launching of the first steamboat. It was estimated that over five and one-half million people saw the great pageants. The main features of the celebration were the Marine Parade, the Historical Pageant, the Military Parade, the Children's Festival, and the Carnival Parade, an aeroplane flight by Wilbur Wright, and the lighting of the beacon fires.

The Marine Parade was led by a reproduction of the diminutive *Half Moon*, in which Henrik Hudson crossed the Atlantic and first sailed up the Hudson. With the *Half Moon* was a reproduction of

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER

Monster Marine Parade

Fulton's original steamboat, the *Clermont*, whose primitive paddle wheels, driven by steam, first agitated the waters of the great river 100 years before. In striking contrast with these pygmy and crude vessels was the magnificent flotilla of leviathan merchant and war ships, in a parade forty miles long, which followed them. The meager crews of the two primitive vessels, arrayed in costumes of the original sailors, served to mark the marvelous contrast between the pioneer invaders of those days and the vast population gathered at the mouth of the river but one hundred years later. Ten miles of warships of different nations were anchored in the harbor. Simultaneously at eight o'clock in the evening, all these mighty vessels sprang into electric flame, and all vessels in the harbor turned on their searchlights. The land illumination was equally profuse and startling. Taken altogether, it was the greatest display of artificial light ever witnessed.

The culmination of the ceremonies was on Saturday night, when the beacon fires, promptly at nine o'clock, flashed "Good-Night" and "Good-By", for one hundred and fifty miles along the Hudson to Albany.

Suppose one had been told, say in 1850 or 1875, that it would soon become possible to talk with a friend two thousand miles away. He probably would have laughed at the fancy, and yet on the 8th of May, 1911, such a conversation was held between New York City and Denver, which were separated by the distance named. The telephone is one of the most wonderful inventions of modern times.

Admission of Arizona and New Mexico

On August 21, 1911, President Taft signed the Arizona Statehood bill. On the 4th of July, 1912, therefore, two more stars were added to our flag, for Arizona and New Mexico, making the whole number forty-eight.

On October 10, 1911, California adopted an amendment to its constitution, by which the right of full suffrage was conferred upon women. The same right had been granted in Wyoming, in 1869; in Colorado, in 1893; in Utah, in 1896; in Idaho, in 1896; in Washington, in 1910; in Arizona, in 1912; in Kansas, in 1912; in Oregon, in 1912; in Nevada and Montana, in 1914; and in the territory of Alaska, in 1913. Partial suffrage for women existed in a number of other states.

Mexico, our next door neighbor to the south, from the beginning of our history, has almost constantly required more or less of our

attention. Students of history know of the long, vigorous and prosperous rule of President Diaz. At this period, however, dissatisfaction had been growing until, much to his grief, he was compelled to resign his office May 25, 1911. He bade good-by to the country for which he had done such vast service, and with his family sailed for Europe. Francisco I. Madero, Jr., who had led a revolt against him, was elected President October 1, and inaugurated on the sixth of the following month. The peace and prosperity, however, for which all hoped and which all expected, did not come. Discontent developed and insurrections broke out in different parts of the country. President Madero was unable to protect the persons and property of the foreigners living in Mexico. Many members of the United States Congress urged intervention by the United States. President Taft sent a large military force into Texas and stationed them along the Rio Grande in order to compel the combatants to respect the laws of neutrality and avoid endangering the lives of Americans on the border. The disorders continued, and many Americans in Mexico lost their property and even their lives. The United States hesitated to intervene, and it was hoped that such a stern measure would never become necessary.

Anarchy in Mexico

The opening of the year 1912 saw the United States running a neck and neck race with Germany for second place in the world in naval strength. Accepting the *Charleston*, *Milwaukee*, and *St. Louis* as armored cruisers, the total tonnage of the United States navy was placed at 797,341, which was nearly 19,000 tons in excess of the tonnage of the heavier vessels of the German navy. If, however, the three ships named were not classified as armored cruisers, then Germany had the greater strength.

Growth of Our Naval Strength

Great Britain's safety forbade her abandoning her supremacy on the sea. She was more than twice as strong as either the United States or Germany. France, Japan, and Russia ranked next, in the order named.

In that period our naval constructors were at work upon plans for the new dreadnought *Pennsylvania*, which was intended to be the strongest fighting ship in the world. It was expected that in guns and armor she would surpass any other battleship ever built. Her twelve 14-inch guns would be a heavier armament than that then possessed by any European ship. The 14-inch gun was a new arrival, and appeared first on the *Texas* and *New York*, the latter

A Formidable Dreadnought

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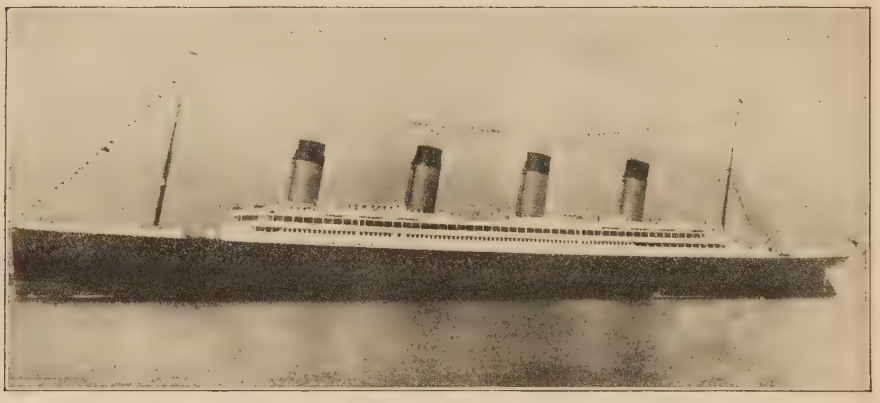
of which was launched at the Brooklyn Navy Yard in the autumn of 1912. She carried, however, two less than the *Pennsylvania*, which was also to have twenty-six 5-inch guns in her secondary battery and probably four submerged torpedo tubes. Her length was to be 630 feet, and her beam about a hundred feet, which would permit her to pass through the Panama canal. Her speed was expected to reach twenty-two knots. Sixteen-inch armor was to extend almost her entire length, two feet above the water line. She was to use oil as fuel, thus gaining much space and greater speed. Her tonnage was estimated at about 31,000 tons. Her construction proceeded very slowly, and before she was commissioned the British had turned



THE "TITANIC"

out several dreadnoughts her superior in speed and gun-power, while Germany had far outdistanced us in naval strength.

An Appalling Sea Tragedy

The most awful tragedy in the history of the sea horrified the world in the month of April, 1912. That which was believed to be impossible came to pass, and man was compelled once again to realize his utter impotence before the forces of nature.

Picture in your mind a towering steamer one-sixth of a mile long, fitted with every convenience and luxury that unlimited finances and human ingenuity could provide. The *Titantic* of the White Star Line had eleven steel decks, thirty water-tight bulkheads, a gymnasium, swimming tanks and a golf course. She cost $7,500,000 and had accommodations for 2,500 passengers and a crew of 860 men. One thing she lacked, however, her lifeboats were barely sufficient for one-third of the passengers. But what of that? Extra lifeboats

would have been expensive and the builders of the modern leviathan insisted she was unsinkable. So her captain headed westward, and anxious to make a record on her maiden voyage, plowed through the ocean at a speed of twenty-three knots, heedless of the five warnings he had received from other steamers that icebergs were unusually numerous in that latitude. On Sunday night, April 14, the *Titanic* collided with one of those prodigious aggregations of ice, and four hours later lay at the bottom of the Atlantic, three miles down, and 1,600 passengers and members of the crew found their watery graves a thousand miles southeast of Halifax and five hundred miles south of Newfoundland.

The Rescue

When it broke upon the officers that the *Titanic* was doomed, the wireless flashed calls for help to Cape Race, Newfoundland, whence they throbbed through space to all vessels within the zone of communication. In accordance with the law of the sea the ships which caught the signal rushed at utmost speed to those in dire need. The Cunard liner *Carpathia* was the first to reach the spot, and picked up twenty boatloads of survivors, mostly women and children.

The gloom of this appalling tragedy was lighted by the sublime self-sacrifice of those from whom it might be said the world least expected such matchless heroism. Men accustomed to all the luxuries that vast wealth could give them forgot everything except their chivalrous duty to the women, the children and the helpless. They aided them to embark in the all-too-scanty boats, spoke words of cheer and encouragement to their own loved ones as they kissed them good-by forever, and then faced their own doom with the same calmness with which they met the most trifling incidents of life.

Great American Athletic Victory

The Olympic games were the most splendid national festival of the ancient Greeks. They were celebrated every four years on the plain of Olympia and were in honor of Zeus, the father of the gods. Their origin dates back more than 2,500 years. The most celebrated public games of those people in addition to the Olympic were the Pythian, the Nemean and the Isthmian. The prizes at the Olympic games were merely chaplets of wild olive, but winners were held in the highest honor and were looked upon as the happiest of men.

The celebration died out as the centuries went by, only to be revived with the greatest enthusiasm with the dawn of the twentieth century. To the first Olympics, held in Athens in 1896, the United

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States sent nine contestants who won every event in which they entered. At the championship contest in 1908, held in the Stadium, Shepherd's Bush, London, the American athletes in track and field sports gained an overwhelming victory, winning fifteen firsts to thirteen for all other nations. Our team consisted of about eighty men, who were given a warm welcome on their return home. The Americans established their supremacy still more decisively at the contests in Stockholm in July, 1912. Record after record was broken.

Regarding the memorable contest, a correspondent of the London *Times* said it proved the American team to be by far the strongest, not merely in point of numbers, but in all-round ability, and justified the boast that we could send over three different teams any one of which would sweep the field.

An Interesting Ethnological Discovery

Authentic news of one of the most interesting ethnological discoveries of modern times was brought to this country in the month of September, 1912. For a good many years stories had come from the far North of the existence of tribes of natives who had never seen a white man. Captain Roald Amundsen, the discoverer of the South Pole, heard so many reports of such people that, while passing through the northwest passage, he made a prolonged search for them but met with no success. On April 22, 1908, Vilhajalmar Stefansson, a native of Canada but of Icelandic extraction, and Dr. R. N. Anderson, a zoologist, left the city of New York, as agents of the Museum of Natural History, to settle the question.

On May 13, 1910, on the fringe of the mainland far eastward from Alaska, Stefansson and his party came upon a man who was sealing in the ice. He was alarmed at first and prepared to fight the strange visitors, but they succeeded in convincing him they were friendly and he conducted them to a quaint village a few miles distant.

White Eskimos

The astonishment of Stefansson may be imagined when he came close to the guide and found he had a red beard and blue eyes. He looked comical because he was dressed in "evening clothes", as they are called in the North. Though made of skin, they were cut in swallow tail fashion, a style never seen among the Alaskan Eskimos, whose hair and eyes are jet black, the hair being as wiry as that of the Japanese.

The villagers numbered about thirty. When they found their visitors meant no harm, they treated them with great hospitality.

Since Stefansson spoke the Eskimo dialect there was nothing strange in their belief that he himself was an Eskimo.

The explorer estimated the population of the new type of Eskimos as two thousand. He personally visited thirteen tribes and became closely acquainted with them. They were slightly smaller than the new Western type and their manners were much better. Among them Stefansson met two elderly persons who each told him they had once seen a white man. The visitor believed this was Dr. Richardson, who traversed that region in 1848 in quest of Sir John Franklin and his men, who were then alive, though all perished two or three years later.

Where Did They Come From?

The discovery of these curious people naturally raised the question as to whence they came. The highest authority on this question was Dr. G. Meldorf, of Copenhagen. He regarded them as the descendants of a Scandinavian colony lost from Greenland in the fifteenth century.

The presidential election of 1912 was one of the most remarkable in our history. Five parties entered the field. The Socialists were first, when they assembled at Indianapolis, and on May 17, nominated Eugene V. Debs for President and former Mayor Emil Seidel, of Milwaukee, for Vice-President. On July 12, the National Prohibition Convention, meeting at Atlantic City, put forward Eugene W. Chafin for President and Aaron S. Watkins for Vice-President. These two organizations whose principles entitle them to respect, cut no figure in the campaign, neither polling an electoral vote.

The Nominees

Three leading parties wrestled for the alluring prize. Ex-President Roosevelt had declared upon the termination of his term and when about to start for Africa on his famous hunt, that in no circumstances would he again be a candidate, but when solicited by his friends to change his mind he consented. His name, as a candidate in opposition to President Taft, was suggested to the Republican National Convention which convened in Chicago, June 18, but, seeing he had no chance of success, he refused to stand for the candidacy, whereupon, on June 22, the convention renominated the old ticket. The supporters of Roosevelt withdrew and at Orchestra Hall on the same day nominated him as their candidate for the presidency. A call was issued for delegates to the new Progressive party to meet for organization in the Coliseum in Chicago, on August 5. At this

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convention Roosevelt was made the nominee, with Governor Hiram W. Johnson, of California, the candidate for Vice-President.

The struggle in the regular Democratic Convention, which assembled in Baltimore July 2, was a hot one. A leading candidate was Champ Clark, a native of Kentucky, born in 1850, but a resident of Missouri since 1880. He had held many offices and positions of honor and trust, including the presidency of Marshall College, West Virginia, and was a prominent congressman and speaker of the House.

HIRAM W. JOHNSON

Oscar W. Underwood, congressman from Alabama, and one of the foremost members of his party, was another candidate, as was Judson Harmon, a native of and governor of Ohio, and Woodrow Wilson, governor of New Jersey.

Clark led when the voting began, but Wilson steadily gained, largely through the great influence and earnest efforts of William Jennings Bryan, and was nominated on the 46th ballot. His running mate was Thomas Riley Marshall, governor of Indiana.

Election of Woodrow Wilson

The result of the election was a foregone conclusion, the only doubt being as to whether Taft or Roosevelt would run second. Wilson carried forty states and received two of the electoral votes of California, a total of 435. Roosevelt received eleven electoral votes in California and carried Pennsylvania, Michigan, Minnesota, South Dakota, and Washington, with a total of 88 electoral votes. Taft carried only two states, Utah and Vermont, with a total of eight electoral votes. The popular vote stood: Wilson 6,286,214,

Roosevelt 4,126,020, Taft 3,483,922. Thus the combined popular vote of Roosevelt and Taft exceeded that of Wilson by 1,323,728. The Democrats also won a great majority in the House of Representatives and a considerable majority in the Senate.

Arizona and New Mexico having been admitted to the Union as states at this period, the circle of states for all of the continental territory of the United States, with the exception of Alaska, is now complete, and the full quota of 48 stars appears on the flag, representing the 48 states on the map.

INDIAN TOTEM POLES—ALASKA

CHAPTER VI

THE STORY OF ALASKA

[*Author's Note:* This chapter records one of the most interesting and important features in United States history. Alaska is a field of mystery, remoteness, romance, adventure, surprises, vast resources, and great possibilities. Alaska furnishes a topic of absorbing interest to the student. It presents unique problems in its historic uncertainties, its absorbing scientific questions, and its economic possibilities. It is too large a subject to be covered adequately in a work of this character, but enough is given to whet the appetite of the reader, and to guide the investigations of the inquirer. There is a vast volume of current literature which may be read with much profit and pleasure.]

THE Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition, which opened at Seattle, Washington, in June and closed in October, 1909, was one of the most instructive exhibits ever presented in America. It attracted many thousands of visitors from every state in the Union, and from all over the world. The exhibition occupied 250 acres of the campus of the University of Washington, and represented an expenditure of $10,000,000 in preparation. As an exposition it was a great success, but its chief significance and interest to readers is found in that for which it stood, and which it was intended to celebrate. It represented in a general way the growth and development of the great Northwest, and in particular it emphasized the resources and opportunities of Alaska. We give in brief outline the story of Alaska.

A friend once asked Mr. Seward what he regarded as the most important measure of his political career. "The purchase of Alaska," he promptly replied. "But it will take the people a generation to find it out." More than a generation has passed, and the people

ORIENTAL AND MANUFACTURES BUILDINGS, ALASKA-YUKON-PACIFIC EXPOSITION

are finding it out. The year 1917 marked Alaska's jubilee year as an American possession.

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In the year 1728 the Imperial government at St. Petersburg sent Vitus Bering, a Dane by birth, on a voyage of discovery. He found that the continent of Asia was separated from the continent of America by a stretch of water so narrow in places that the coast of one continent was plainly visible from the coast of the other. This narrow stretch of water has since been known as Bering Strait. In subsequent voyages Bering extended his explorations, as a result of which the Czar's flag was planted upon that great expanse of the northwestern part of the American continent, which for more than a century thereafter was known as Russian America.

Discoveries of Vitus Bering

Russia found her American possessions a burden upon her hands. The territory was remote, undeveloped, unproductive, and unpromising. Communication was difficult and expensive. Her only interest in holding the territory was to keep it out of the hands of Great Britain, which nation she regarded at that time as a threatening rival. A desire developed in Russia to transfer the territory to the United States, which, however, found little response in America. There is a tradition that at one period, the United States could have had the territory by merely accepting it. During the administrations of Presidents Pierce and Buchanan there were informal desultory negotiations on the basis of a purchase price of five million dollars for the territory, but the Civil War absorbed attention in the United States, and the matter was allowed to lapse.

Rapid Growth of California

Meanwhile the discovery of gold in California was drawing a growing population to the Pacific coast of the United States, and a valuable trade in fish, fur, and ice sprang up between San Francisco and the coast of Russian America. Following the war, negotiations were renewed, and $7,200,000 was finally agreed upon by Secretary Seward and Baron Stoeckl, the Russian minister, as the purchase price.

On the evening of March 29, 1867, the Russian minister called at Mr. Seward's house in Washington and informed him of the receipt of a cablegram reporting the Russian Emperor's consent to the proposition, and added that he would be ready to take up the final work on the next day, for haste was desirable. With a smile of satisfaction at the news, Mr. Seward pushed aside the table where he had been enjoying his usual evening game of whist, and said:

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"Why wait until tomorrow, Mr. Stoeckl? Let us make the treaty tonight." The needed clerks were summoned. Charles Sumner, chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, was brought in; the Russian minister sent for his assistants. At mid-

Purchase of Alaska

night, March 29, all met at the Department of State, and at four o'clock on the morning of March 30, 1867, the treaty was completed and signed.

At the time of this purchase very few Americans were aware of the negotiations, not more than two or three senators having any knowledge of the matter. When the news came out the ever-ready critics were not wanting. The vast territory of the United States west of the Mississippi river was at that time unsettled, much of it unexplored. The government already was "squandering", it was charged, tremendous sums of money in building a railroad across the continent which "by no chance could ever be made to pay". Moreover, the country had just burdened itself with the immense debt of the Civil War. It was a time for retrenchment and economy instead of such "profligate extravagance" as this purchase. The transaction was proclaimed as "Seward's Folly", "Seward's Ice Box", "The White Elephant".

The wisdom of the purchase must be credited to the two far-sighted Americans most active in the negotiations, Seward and Sumner. Though neither lived to witness anything of the great development and promise that distinguished Alaska in later days, yet both had a keen appreciation of the value of their purchase.

Vast Area of Alaska

Alaska is an empire in itself, extending eight hundred miles north and south, by about seven hundred east and west. It embraces an area of nearly six hundred thousand square miles, equal to about one-fifth of all the rest of the continental United States. The United States proper has a coast line of ten thousand miles. The coast line of Alaska with its islands is twenty-six thousand miles. The $7,200,000 paid for Alaska by Mr. Seward was at the rate of $12.00 per square mile, or two cents per acre.

When the treaty was presented to the Senate for ratification, Mr. Sumner, in a notable address, declared:

"The present treaty is a visible step in the occupation of the whole North American continent. But it involves something more. By it we dismiss one more monarch from the continent. One by one they have retired; first France, then Spain; then France again; and

now Russia; all giving way to that absorbing unity which is declared in the national motto, *E Pluribus Unum.*" Mr. Seward was moved by similar ideals.

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Alaska cost $7,200,000 in 1867. In fifty years, up to 1917, it had yielded over eighty times that amount. For over thirty years after securing the territory, the United States did not give it enough attention even to keep a record of its productions. However, from official documents, mostly of date since 1899, it appears that Alaska's output has been:

Commercial Value of Alaska

Gold	$260,488,175
Silver	3,011,153
Copper	46,281,148
Other minerals	2,751,638
Fisheries and furs	299,581,890
Other merchandise	1,705,820
Total	$613,819,824

In 1869, but two years after the annexation, in an address, upon the occasion of a visit to Sitka, Mr. Seward, speaking of the fisheries, declared himself "almost a convert to the theory that the waters of the globe are filled with stores for the sustenance of animal life surpassing the production of the land." An annual fish export from Alaska of some $10,000,000 goes far to sustain this view, and as yet the fisheries are only touched.

Alaska's Mineral Resources

The extent of the mineral resources is as yet unknown. It has been estimated that Alaska's supply of copper exceeds that of all the rest of the United States, and that her coal exceeds in value her wonderful supply of gold, of which over $16,000,000 was produced in 1916. The territory has 50,000,000 acres of agricultural land, with a climate as favorable as in some of our northern states. It will produce in the greatest abundance all the vegetation of the temperate zone. Mr. Roosevelt, while President, said: "The men of my age will not be old men before they see one of the greatest and most populous states of the entire Union in Alaska, and I predict that Alaska, within the next century, will support as large a population as does the entire Scandinavian Peninsula in Europe."

It was seventeen years before the United States gave to Alaska any kind of government, except the presence of a collector of customs and of a few soldiers. It was not until 1898 that a criminal code was established, followed by a civil code in 1900. Not until 1912 was a territorial assembly provided. In 1913 the Secretary of State said: "The only constructive thing done by this government in behalf of

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WINTER NAVIGATION, NORTHERN ALASKA

Alaska in nearly half a century was the importation of reindeer for the benefit of the Eskimo on the border of the Arctic Ocean. For the white man it has done nothing." The northern portions of the territory are ideally adapted to reindeer, the flesh of which is pronounced preferable to beef, and is much cheaper. Mr. Sheldon Jackson was instrumental in introducing reindeer from Siberia and Lapland, which have multiplied in large numbers.

Congress Authorizes Vast Improvements for Alaska

At last Congress waked up. In 1914 the President was authorized to expend $35,000,000 in building railroads, wagon roads, trails, piers, wharves, and other approaches and terminals, so as to open up the rich resources of the region for development. Secretary Lane, in urging this legislation, said: "It is time that the United States either does something for Alaska, or abandons it."

President Wilson, in his message to Congress upon inaugurating the railroad construction in 1915, said: "It is only thrusting the key into the storehouse, and throwing back the lock and opening the door." Secretary Lane declared: "We are to encourage the building of industries, to open up a land not only of mines and fisheries, but of towns, farms, mills, and factories, supporting millions of people of the hardiest and most wholesome of the race."

The development of this territory has justified the wisdom of Mr. Sumner in retaining for it its original native name, Alaska, "The Great Land". In its vast natural resources it promises to verify the claim that it is "The Treasure House of America", while its extensive and varied seacoasts, its green valleys, and waving plains, its grand canyons and gorges, its snow-covered mountain ranges and cloud-piercing mountain tops, its gigantic glaciers, its vast silences, its arctic auroral splendors, its perpetual kaleidoscope of sky and earth and sea, win for it the just title of "The Wonderland of the World".

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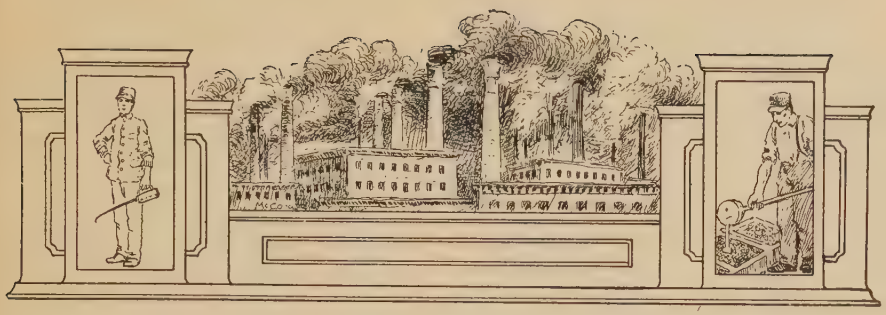
From the Original Drawing by Charles Kendrick

STRIKE OF THE SAILORS IN NEW YORK, 1803



CHAPTER VII

LABOR TROUBLES IN THE UNITED STATES

[*Author's Note:* This chapter is made up chiefly of a review of labor strikes in the United States. It is a history calculated to arouse sympathy for the workingmen, and some anxiety for the stability of the government. To the thinker, whose mind is illumined by the lessons of history, it is evident that the actions of men are governed largely by a false standard. It would seem to be accepted that brain has the preference over brawn, and that the man who is endowed with the intelligence to gain an advantage over his fellows of inferior intellectual equipment, is thereby entitled to take advantage of them, and to gain for himself emoluments and privileges that would otherwise be impossible to him. Too often, also, men are given rank according to the amount of material wealth they may possess without taking into consideration their moral and mental equipment, and the means by which they have gained their wealth.

Labor unions have proved of immense value to their members, and to the general public. But the workingmen are frequently ill advised and misled and taken advantage of by ignorant or unscrupulous demagogues within and without their own ranks.

Authorities for this chapter are official reports and contemporary publications.]

THERE is no end to the plans which have been formulated for the benefit of workingmen. Many of these were wise, and have given hope that the disputes between capital and labor would disappear and everything would go forward in quiet and harmony, but the final solution of this, the most perplexing of all social problems, seems to be not yet. Strikes continue, with the destruction of property, the paralysis of business, and often with violence and loss of life.

Up to recent times, despite the formation of laborers into unions, the employers have generally been victorious over the strikers, for the

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

simple reason that men with plenty of money can afford to stay idle longer than those having to depend upon their daily wages for food for themselves and families.

The great fact that has given capital the advantage is that labor often is a drug on the market; there are more workers than there are places for workers; the supply is greater than the demand. The real difficulty, therefore, of this vexing problem is to change the relations of capital and labor, or, in other words, to create a demand for all the men that need employment.

Arbitration

The logical way of settling the quarrels between nations would be by arbitration. The common method, when two countries can not agree over some question, has been to go to war. Then follow incalculable waste and destruction of life and property and unspeakable suffering, and yet the original question in dispute remains unsettled. How much wiser and better it would be in every way for the belligerents to refer the matters in dispute to some neutral nation or to some impartial tribunal for settlement. War never settles anything, but on the contrary usually leaves in its trail the seeds of hatred and revenge to spring up again in time in a new crop of disaster and destruction.

Folly of War

Several of the colonial wars ended without the slightest gain to either side, and the War of 1812, in which multitudes of lives were lost, millions of dollars' worth of property was destroyed, and the capital of our country was burned, came to an end without the settlement of the cause of the quarrel. This, of course, could not be the case if the wrangle were left to arbitrators, and one of the most hopeful signs of the times is the growing favor among nations, despite the awful outbreak in Europe in the summer of 1914, of that method of saving life and gaining the ends of justice.

Advantages of Arbitration

It follows that arbitration is the true way of preventing the disastrous wrangles between employers and employees. When there are pleasant relations between the parties, and when each is anxious to maintain those relations, and they meet in that spirit to discuss their differences, they are quite sure to come to an agreement before they separate. If the employer is compelled to lower the wages of his men, he will give his reasons, and the intelligent employees will listen. If the employer has no good reason to give, and his cause is clearly wrong, the men will be sustained not only by their own unions, but by the public, if they strike.

The right to strike is as clear as the right to breathe, but the wrong is committed when the strikers, or their sympathizers, as is so often the case, use violence to prevent others from taking their places. Not only that, but they pillage and destroy property, and some of the desperate persons among them (quite often criminals who are the worst enemies of the strikers) commit atrocious misdeeds. Then follow a call upon the military, a fight with the vicious mob, and lamentable bloodshed.

The First Strike

The earliest strike of which there is any satisfactory record in this country was that of the boot and shoemakers of Philadelphia in the year 1796. These men "turned out", as the saying then was, for an increase of wages. They won, and again struck in 1798 and 1799, carrying their point each time.

The first strike in New York of which record has been found is that of the sailors in 1803 for an increase of wages from $10 to $14 a month. The Jack Tars paraded around the water-front and compelled seamen from every ship in port that they could reach to join with them in their agitation. They became riotous, and the town guard turned out and repressed their disorder. The leader of this strike was convicted and sent to jail, and the strike was a signal failure. On November 1, 1805, the journeymen bootmakers of Philadelphia struck for an increase in their pay of from 25 to 75 cents on each pair of boots. The strike was a failure. Its organizers were found guilty of "conspiracy to raise wages", and were fined $8 and costs each. When the New York shoemakers turned out in 1809, two hundred strong, they won their contention, but when the shoemakers in Pittsburgh in 1815 followed their example, they failed, and were convicted and fined.

Strikes for a Closed Shop

As long ago as 1821 the printers struck in Albany against non-union workmen, but there are no data at hand indicating the exact result of their protest. So the protest against non-union workingmen dates at least from 1821, and that for a ten-hour day at least from 1830. Next in chronological order came the strike of the spinning girls in the Cocheco mills in Dover, N. H., in 1827. The carpenters and masons of Boston struck in 1830 for a ten-hour day, and failed.

In April, 1834, the laborers on the Providence railroad struck at Mansfield, Mass., and became riotous. The Massachusetts militia was called out to suppress their disorder, and succeeded in doing so.

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In August, 1835, the operatives of twenty mills in Paterson, N. J., struck for shorter hours of work. This seems to have been a determined struggle, but the strikers lost their points of contention and $24,000 in wages besides. The ten-hour-day agitation was continued by the coal-handlers of Philadelphia in May, 1835, though without decisive result, while the same year the journeymen shoemakers again struck for shorter hours and more pay, and again carried their

STREET-CAR STRIKE IN NEW YORK, 1869

point. Next in order came the dam-builders in Maine in July, 1836, with their successful contention for the right to smoke at work. Of the fifteen strikes between that year and 1842, the reports are meager, but it appears that ten were unsuccessful, and three without positive advantage to either side.

Strikes Not a Success

As the manufacturing industries of the country multiplied, and increased in wealth and importance, strikes seem to have kept even pace. From 1840 to 1860 there were numerous strikes in a great variety of industries and for an equal variety of causes.

The record of labor disturbances seems to have lapsed during the

Civil War. In 1868 the Fall River spinners and weavers struck against the January reduction in wages of 18 per cent. In two weeks it was said the men lost $50,000, but they were partially successful. In the years 1868 and 1869 there were seventeen big strikes, most of which failed. It was at this time that one of the first street railway strikes occurred, when the men on the New York City cars went out in 1869, resulting in no little confusion and rioting.

The next strike to attract attention was the revolt of the iron-workers of Pittsburgh on December 5, 1874, against what they said were unfair wages. By April 15 of the following year the men had gained their point, and an increase of wages was conceded to them.

Omitting reference to the almost innumerable strikes that occurred in the next decade, we give a brief report of a labor disturbance which, from certain conditions involved, became of special historic importance.

The Great Strike at Homestead

One of the mills belonging to the Carnegie Steel Company was on the Monongahela river, at Homestead, Pa., a few miles from Pittsburgh. In 1889, a sliding scale of wages was adopted, by which the pay of the workmen was increased or diminished in accordance with the variation in prices. The agreement, however, was that $25 per ton should be the minimum wages paid for what is known as 4 x 4 Bessemer steel billets.

This contract ended in June, 1892, and the company notified their workmen that the minimum or lowest price thereafter would be $22. They gave as a reason for the change that the improvements in the machinery enabled the men to earn a larger amount of money than before by the same labor. The company insisted further that December 31, instead of June 30, should be the date for the termination of the contract fixing the annual wages.

Proposal Refused by Workmen

The men refused to accept the proposal, and were sustained by the Amalgamated Association of Steel and Iron Workers. They denied that the increased output made necessary the reduction, and regarded the change of time named as caused by the fact that in winter they were not in so good a situation to resist a scaling-down of wages as in summer. They demanded the continuance, therefore, of the old agreement. Mr. H. C. Frick, the chairman of the company, raised the minimum to $23, and the men came down to $24. Beyond that neither would go.

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RIOT AT HOMESTEAD, PA., JULY, 1892

Mr. Frick finally announced that if the men did not accept his terms by June 24, the company would no longer deal with the union. The workmen held out, and on the 1st of July the lockout began. PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

The company determined to keep their works going with the help of non-union men, and were prepared to hire armed watchmen to protect their property should it become necessary. Neither side would yield a point, and, unfortunately, that great remedy under such strained circumstances—arbitration—was not considered by any concerned.

The excitement and turbulence increased until the sheriff of Allegheny county was unable to control the mob. In the meantime, the company hired some 270 men of the Pinkerton Detective Agency of Chicago to guard the mill. This was a dangerous step, in the inflamed state of the community. Well aware of what was likely to follow, the attempt was made to convey the men to the mill secretly at night by way of the river from Pittsburgh. But the approach of the detectives was signaled to the suspicious employees, and, filled with anger and resentment, they awaited the coming of the hired guards. Employment of Pinkerton Detectives

The barges with the Pinkerton men on board reached Homestead about four o'clock on the morning of Wednesday, July 6. A short parley was held with the hundreds of angry workmen on the bank. While it was going on, some one (it is uncertain from which side) fired a shot. This precipitated a fierce fight. The barges drew off, but soon repeated the attempt to land, and failed again, whereupon they anchored in mid-stream.

Irregular firing was kept up through the day. The workmen used a cannon and made a fort of steel bars. It is not known certainly how many fell on each side. The officers were armed with Winchester rifles and killed some eleven workmen and wounded eighteen. The cannon on the shore was charged with slugs and scrap-iron, while some of the workmen had firearms. They killed six detectives and wounded at least twenty.

The situation of the officers on the barges finally became so desperate in the face of the infuriated mob surrounding them, that at about five o'clock in the afternoon they surrendered and were disarmed. The leading strikers assured them of safety, but when the Pinkerton men came ashore the fury of the mob could not be Surrender of the Officers

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restrained. They repeatedly assaulted the men on their way to jail, fully one hundred being seriously injured. The jail could not accommodate all the prisoners, who were soon taken to Pittsburgh. This left the strikers masters of the situation for the time.

The sheriff now appealed to Governor Pattison for military aid. He declined to give it until assured that every other resource was exhausted. The sheriff tried to organize a posse, but was obliged to notify the governor that it was impossible, and the county authorities could not preserve the peace nor restore the mill to its owners.

State Aid

Then the governor, on July 10, ordered out all the military forces of the state, some 8,000 men, under Major-General G. R. Snowden. Two days later the troops quietly occupied the town. No outbreak occurred, for the presence of the military overawed the strikers, but the situation was critical. The baffled workmen were watchful, angered, revengeful, and "bided their time".

The Carnegie Company posted notices that unless the employees returned to work, their places would be filled by non-union men. Warrants were issued for the arrest of the leaders of the strike, Hugh O'Donnell, Hugh Ross, Burgess McLuckie, and others, on the charge of murder in the killing of the Pinkerton men on July 6. All of the arrested parties were released on bail.

The lamentable events at Homestead attracted the attention of Congress, which appointed a committee of the House, with instructions to investigate and report upon the causes of the trouble and the workings of the Pinkerton system.

The excitement, which had subsided to a great extent, flamed up again on the 23d of July, through the attempted assassination of Mr. Frick. A Russian-Hebrew anarchist, named Berkman, gained entrance to the office of Mr. Frick under the pretense of being connected with "The New York Employment Agency", and fired three shots

Attempt to Assassinate Mr. Frick

at him, two of which took effect. Mr. Frick grappled with his assailant, and was assisted by Vice-Chairman Leischman, who happened to be in his office. A violent struggle followed, during which Mr. Frick was stabbed seven times with a dirk knife. With the aid of the clerks, who rushed in, the assassin was finally overpowered and taken to the police station.

In the criminal court at Pittsburgh, September 19, the jury, without leaving their seats, convicted Berkman, who was sentenced to twenty-two years in the penitentiary. The act of this miscreant

was condemned by the workingmen generally, even in Homestead, where so many were bitterly opposed to Mr. Frick. Though the man had accomplices in New York, his crime was not the outcome of any wide conspiracy. Mr. Frick's wounds proved less severe than was supposed, and he was at work in his office again the following month.

Withdrawal of the Troops

The company carried out their threat of employing non-union men. There had been 3,800 employees in the Homestead mill, of whom 1,200 were replaced by the 1st of August, with more continually coming, mainly from the East. Matters were so tranquil that most of the troops were withdrawn.

There were no signs of yielding, however, on the part of the strikers. At an immense meeting of the Amalgamated Association, August 2, it was resolved to continue the struggle. Contributions had been sent in and were still coming from sympathizers in all parts of the country. Several sympathetic strikes took place in the other Carnegie mills, the most important of which were those at the Union mills in Pittsburgh, and the Duquesne and Beaver Falls mills. The Duquesne strikers, however, soon went back to work, convinced that the fight was hopeless.

By the 1st of October the mills were running in charge of non-union men. Matters seemed so tranquil that on the 13th of that month the last of the troops, after ninety-five days' service, were withdrawn from Homestead.

With their departure, however, disorder broke out again. Conflicts between the new and the old workmen were frequent, though not of a serious nature. The bitterness of feeling was mainly due to the fact, evident to all by this time, that the employers had become masters of the situation.

Collapse of the Strike

The fatal blow to the strike came November 20, when the Amalgamated Association, by a vote of 101 to 91, officially declared the strike at an end. The direct cause of this break was the act of 300 mechanics and day laborers, who, three days before, went to the mills, asked for work, and were given places. With the official declaration that the strike was off, a general rush was made for the company's office by the men who had been idle for five months. The company found places for the majority, but treated with them as individuals, requiring each to sign a pledge that he would not belong to any labor organization, and would submit to the rules and regula-

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tions of the company. The leaders of the strike, who were on the "black list", were refused employment.

Cost of the Strike

Now as to the cost of the Homestead strike: The strikers lost at least $2,000,000 and the company double that amount. The expense of the state troops was some $500,000. To this total must be added the cost to Allegheny county in the murder, treason, riot, and other cases resulting from the disturbance. More lamentable than all were the two-score deaths due to the same cause.

EUGENE V. DEBS

The Pullman Car Company, whose works are near Chicago, had been largely engaged for years in the manufacture of sleeping-cars, and had contracts with numerous railway companies for the running of the cars over their lines. Dull times forced the Pullman Company, early in the spring of 1894, to give their large number of employees the choice of accepting a cut in their wages or of having the works closed. They accepted the former, the reduction being from twenty-five to almost fifty per cent, with the understanding that the old rates were to be restored as soon as the business of the company warranted it.

The Pullman Car Company Strike

The suffering of the workmen was so great that in May they declared they could not live upon the reduced pay, and they demanded the restoration of the old rates. The company refused, declaring that they were running the business at a loss, for no other purpose than that of keeping the men employed. This was not satisfactory, and, on the 11th of May, 3,000 workmen, the majority of the whole number, struck. Thereupon the company closed the works.

The American Railway Union, of which Eugene V. Debs was president, took charge of the case and declared a boycott of all Pullman cars. The effect of this sweeping order was to forbid all engineers, brakemen, and switchmen from handling the cars, on whatever road they were used. At the same time the union de-

manded that the Pullman Company should submit the dispute to arbitration. The company replied that there was nothing to arbitrate, since the question was whether they should or should not manage their own works. A boycott on all Pullman cars was declared on June 26, to begin on the Illinois Central, thence spreading over the country. The companies that persisted in handling the Pullman cars were warned that their employees would strike, and behind it all was a threat to call out every trade in the country.

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Inasmuch as the railway companies that had nothing to do with the manufacture of the cars were under heavy bonds to draw them, they could not consent to the boycott without enormous loss. They refused, and, on June 29, President Debs declared a boycott on twenty-two roads running out of Chicago, and ordered the committees representing the employees on each road to call out the workmen as rapidly as possible, thus blocking all freight, passenger, and mail transportation. Some of these roads did not use Pullman cars, but their officers had joined the Chicago General Managers' Association, and thus incurred the hostility of the American Railway Union, less than a year old, and which had been formed with the object of absorbing within itself all the separate unions of the different classes of railway employees. It had a large following in the West and Southwest, but was weak in the East, where the admirable organization known as the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers had the good will of the employers no less than that of the employees themselves.

Boycott of All Railroads Out of Chicago

The strike, as was expected, extended rapidly. President Debs urged his men to refrain from interference with the property of railroads, but such advice is often disregarded. Rioting soon broke out in many quarters, trains were blockaded or derailed, and men who wished to take the strikers' places were savagely beaten. The cutting off of many supplies from Chicago caused prices to rise to an astonishing figure, and a famine impended. The destruction of railway property became so serious that the companies called on the city and county authorities for protection. The forces furnished being unable to cope with the turbulent mob, Governor Altgeld was appealed to, and he sent troops to the scene, but they, too, were insufficient to overawe the lawbreakers. As is often the case, the militia showed more sympathy with the strikers than with the authorities.

Turbulence of the Strikers

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Unfortunately for the strikers, they brought the United States government into the dispute. The mails and postal service were checked, and deputy marshals were resisted. The national government is bound to protect the great lines of interstate commerce, which also suffered interference. Notice of such action was made by the attorney-general's office at Washington, and on July 2, a Federal writ was issued covering the judicial district of Northern Illinois, forbidding all persons from interfering with the mail-conveyance or with interstate railroad commerce. The arrest of several leaders followed, an act that incited the strikers to threats of revolt and treason. The situation was so alarming that the grand jury was summoned to find indictments against President Debs and others. The government having received notice that United States troops were necessary in Chicago to enforce the orders of the courts, a large force of cavalry, artillery, and infantry was sent thither from the regular army. Governor Altgeld made a long protest by telegraph, but President Cleveland sent still more troops to Chicago, since it was apparent that the governor's course had encouraged the strikers.

Action of President Cleveland

It should be noted that most of the latter were foreigners, chiefly Poles and Bohemians. A mob of more than 20,000 had several collisions with the military, and a number were killed and wounded. Trains were ditched, buildings fired, and more troops were ordered to the scene of the disturbances, the President declaring that the lawbreakers should be put down, if it required the whole United States army to do it, since the Constitution clearly made such action his duty.

Spread of the Strike to California

The strike assumed serious proportions in California, where there had long been a strong antagonism to the railroads. The greatest trouble was at Los Angeles, Oakland, and Sacramento, where the state militia refused to charge the rioters when ordered so to do. While a force of regular troops was going to the scene of the disturbance on the railroad, the train was ditched by strikers, and several were killed or hurt. The prompt and stern measures of President Cleveland soon proved effective.

The strength of the strike waned almost as rapidly as it rose. The other labor organizations that were called out refused to obey; instead of doing so, they expressed sympathy and kept at their work. On July 10, President Debs, Vice-President Howard, and other

leaders of the American Railway Union, were arrested and arraigned on charge of obstructing the United States mails and of interfering with the execution of the laws of the United States. The leaders were released on bail. They and others—forty-three in all—were indicted by the Federal grand jury on July 19, the bonds being fixed at $10,000 each. Bail was offered them, but they declined to accept it and were lodged in jail. On December 14, Judge Woods sentenced Debs to six months' imprisonment for contempt, the terms of the other leaders being three months each. Many felt that this summary action, in which the accused were not allowed a trial by jury, was unjustifiable. It was not sympathy for the agitators that led to condemnation of the Federal authorities, but the fact that the men had been condemned and punished without indictment and trial by jury. It was a dangerous step, and a distinct menace to the personal liberty of all citizens.

Punishment of the Leaders

The strike was a vast failure, and though it caused much uneasiness and alarm in remote sections not directly affected by the disturbances, it taught several important lessons. We have already referred to one—the peril from ignorant, brutalized foreigners, that are turned loose upon our shores to become tools of designing men tenfold more guilty than they.

When the flurry was all over, President Debs declared that he never again would have any official connection with a strike, for so long as they are repugnant to society, so long it is idle to strike. No matter upon how extensive a plan a strike is organized, failure is inevitable. The only remedy is at the polls. The leaders of other organized branches of labor expressed the same sentiment.

End of the Strike

The general committee of the strikers on August 5 officially declared the strike at an end in Chicago, and their action was quickly followed in other directions. On July 25, President Cleveland appointed Carroll D. Wright, commissioner of labor, John D. Kernan, of New York, and Nicholas E. Worthington, of Illinois, a commission to investigate the cause of the strike, and to suggest a remedy. In their report they recommended a permanent United States Railroad Strike Commission of three members, whose recommendations should be enforceable by the courts. The report also encouraged orderly labor unions, the licensing of railway employees, and a system somewhat of the nature of that prevailing in Massachusetts, for the promotion of arbitration.

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER — Coal Strike of 1902

The strike of the coal miners in 1902, was universally felt throughout the country. The mutterings of discontent, which had been heard for months, grew into a revolt on May 12, at which time the cost of anthracite coal was $5.45 a ton. When the strike ended it was $25.50, and in many places could not be obtained at any price.

JOHN MITCHELL

At the convention at Hazleton, Pa., it was assumed that 145,000 men would be brought into conflict with the operators. John Mitchell, the president, strongly urged peace, but when the strike was declared, zealously supported the action of the convention. The wages of the miners at that time netted from $60 to $100 a month, consisting of from four to six hours work daily. The miner blasted out the coal, which was gathered by laborers whom he paid, as he also paid for the powder and other necessities. He averaged six cars a day at a dollar each. The laborers were paid $2.00 a day by the miner, and worked from eight to ten hours. The engineers received $60 to $80 a month, and the breaker boys 75 cents a day.

Demands of the Strikers

The strikers demanded a 20 per cent increase of wages to miners, an eight-hour work-day for men paid by the day, and that 2,240 pounds, instead of 2,750 pounds, should constitute a ton. The laborers were ignored, there being no demand for shorter hours or an increase of wages for them. The employers refused the demand.

The strike bore with increasing stringency upon all kinds of busi-

ness, upon every financial interest, and upon the comfort of the multitudes of homes throughout the country. It became the theme in hundreds of pulpits, and its phases were anxiously discussed by the most prominent citizens and the leading economists. Rioting, incendiarism, mine-flooding and bloodshed, accompanied by the loss of a number of lives, spread a reign of terror in the coal regions. The paid police failing to awe the strikers, applications were made to Governor Stone of Pennsylvania for protection, but he declined to grant it.

Refusal of the Governor to Call Out Troops

The New York Board of Trade and Transportation, on June 4, asked President Roosevelt to mediate, but neither he nor J. Pierpont Morgan, to whom a similar appeal was made, responded. Governor Stone refused, on July 10, to order out the National Guard, but the situation became so tense that, twenty days later, a part of the state militia took the field under the command of General J. P. S. Gobin.

Matters grew so critical that, on October 1, 1902, President Roosevelt asked President John Mitchell and the leading anthracite coal operators to come to Washington to confer with him. Nothing resulted, as the operators rejected the offer of the miners to arbitrate and to mine coal pending a decision. Affairs became so bad that Governor Stone yielded, October 6, and ordered on duty the whole National Guard of Pennsylvania. This brought 9,000 troops into the disturbed districts. Meanwhile, President Roosevelt was doing his utmost to induce the miners to go back to work, and President Mitchell, and senators Quay and Penrose, held several conferences. The operators remained firm, demanded Federal protection, and the strikers were equally determined. The final negotiations were opened on October 11, when Secretary of War Root visited J. P. Morgan. Two days later, Mr. Morgan submitted to the President the statement of the coal operators, in which they agreed to leave the dispute to arbitration, pending which the mines were to be worked on the condition that the workers were not interfered with by the union men.

End of the Strike

After consulting with Mr. Mitchell, President Roosevelt, October 16, named the following arbitrators: General John M. Wilson, E. W. Parker, Judge George Gray, Bishop John L. Spalding, E. E. Clark, and Thomas H. Watkins. The strike was practically ended the next day, when the miners' executive committee accepted

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the commission. On October 20, the miners' convention assembled at Wilkesbarre, and the next day unanimously voted to return to work, and abide by the decision of the arbitration board which the President had appointed. Within the following three days the miners went back to their places, and nearly all of the mines were opened. It was estimated that the entire cost of the strike to operators, miners, railway men, storekeepers, and others, excluding the loss in different lines of industry, was almost $150,000,000.

JUDGE GEORGE GRAY

The most murderous strike in the history of the country was that which flamed out in Southern Colorado in the autumn of 1913. It was war—barbarous, bloody and merciless, in which more lives were sacrificed than in some of our historical battles. It assumed such unrestrainable fierceness that it passed beyond control of the state authorities, and an appeal had to be made to the strong arm of the Federal government, before the fires of anarchy could be stamped out.

The Great Coal Miners' Strike of Colorado

An accurate, unbiased account of this crimson blot upon our civilization, is almost impossible because of the bitter partisanship of both sides, the "press censorship, interrupted communication, and lack of disinterested witnesses", but light has been gradually let in and the sober truth has become known.

The Southern Colorado coal fields were in the neighborhood of Trinidad and were leased and operated by the Rocky Mountain Fuel Company and the Victor American Fuel Company. The employees numbered about 25,000, composed mostly of Greeks, Italians, Slavs, and Mexicans, of whom only 19 per cent were English-speaking

people. It is to be noted that many of these men were strike-breakers ten years previous to their own troubles.

Only a comparatively small percentage of the miners were members of the union, when, in the summer of 1913, officers of the United Mine Workers entered the district and worked so vigorously that one-half of the employees joined the organization. Thus buttressed, the following demands were made upon the operators:

Demands of the Strikers

1. The eight-hour day.
2. Pay for narrow and dead work.
3. A check weighman without interference of company officials.
4. The right to trade in any store they pleased.
5. The abolition of the criminal guard system.
6. Ten per cent advance in wages.
7. Recognition of the Union.

While the operators conceded several demands as already guaranteed, they refused point blank to grant others, and a strike was declared to take effect September 27, 1913. The operators immediately employed guards to protect their property. Nearly all of these were furnished by the Baldwin-Phelto Agency, which had been active in a similar capacity in other strikes.

The coal fields were in the front range of foothills to the east of the Rocky Mountains, and the camps were located in the narrow valleys and gorges between the hills. The strikers' tent colonies were as near their old places of employment as possible. Guards were set at all company property and in rifle-pits in the adjacent hills. They were provided with the best rifles, machine-guns, and search-lights. The strikers had many rifles, shotguns, and revolvers.

A State of Anarchy

With venomous hate between the two forces, and the constant interchange of taunts, insults and defiance, vicious fights began at once. Several men on both sides were killed and a number of buildings were destroyed. Matters rapidly grew worse, and on the 25th of October, Governor Ammons ordered the militia to mobilize. Two days later they were sent to the strike district and directed to preserve order and to disarm both sides.

Mr. W. T. Davis, who was a member of one of the militia companies called into service, gave a graphic account of this phase of the situation in *The Outlook:*

"I shall not soon forget the impressive incidents which immediately succeeded the detraining of the troops. As we approached

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER — Graphic Account by Mr. Davis

the town we found the strikers lined up on one side of the road wearing their working clothes, with picks, drills and other tools indicating their trade on their shoulders. Many were carrying American flags. On the other side were the children, waving flags and singing patriotic songs, led by a band from the tent colony. We then marched by the tent colony where these people were living on an allowance of two dollars and fifty cents a week for adults and fifty cents per week for children. To men who will do that for their cause, their cause is a religion. We were then given 'Halt' and 'At ease'. A big soldier said to me, 'I got a big lump right here in my throat, and I'm not ashamed of it.'

"On the whole the demands of the miners are just. It is entirely probable that the operators had not refused openly to allow the men check-weighers of their own choosing, nor compelled them to trade at company stores. But it seems equally certain that they did both by insidious methods. As to general working conditions, judging from what could be seen outside and the frequent explosions and other accidents inside, the conditions were perhaps the worst in the country, notwithstanding the fact that the Colorado laws required nearly everything necessary to the safety and comfort of the miners. According to the operators, the men received on an average daily wages of $3.84. They neglect to state, however, that out of this the men 'must furnish themselves with powder and hand tools, and keep their tools in repair.'"

The Militia Called Out

The force of militia called out consisted of about 1200 men under command of Adjutant-General John Chase. The strikers welcomed them as protectors against the exasperating professional guards. The miners adopted the plan of closing every mine possible, and of keeping it closed by picketing. The militia had orders to disarm the strikers and prevent the importation of strike-breakers. The strikers refused to give up their arms, whereupon the policy was changed and strike-breakers were allowed to work and were protected in doing so. At the same time the militia prevented forcible picketing. The guards employed by the operators were restrained, their machine-guns taken from them, and many were sent out of the district. The outlook for the restoration of order was good, although the extremists on both sides bitterly denounced the policy.

Then violent quarreling fanned the flames of hate, and the outlook

again became ominous. The most effective firebrand was "Mother Jones" who was a genius for stirring up discontent and strife. Her words were so inflammatory that she was arrested and held prisoner by the militia under the charge of inciting to riot. She was confined in the hospital in Trinidad, where a host of women, as headlong in their fury as the militant suffragettes across the sea, made a fierce attempt to rescue her. These desperate women were turned back by the soldiers. Other similar incidents added to the burning resentment of the miners, but the authorities thought the situation had improved and withdrew five-sixths of the militia.

Militia Force Reduced

This small remaining force was distributed along the Colorado and Southern railroad from Walsenberg to Trinidad, a distance of sixty miles. It was but a "corporal's guard" that thus invited attack. The chief mining centers along this railway were Rugby, Aguilar, Ludlow and Forbes, Ludlow being the largest tent colony, where the Union headquarters for that part of the strike district was located. The detachment of militia placed here numbered forty men and officers. Between them and the miners there had been constant friction, for the mines in the neighborhood were running with nearly a full force of men and it looked, so far as that section was concerned, as if the strike were lost.

On the afternoon of Sunday, April 19, a young man in the employ of one of the companies was fired upon and killed. Early the next morning a volley was discharged at two men riding in a buggy and one of them was slain. The militia did considerable scouting during the night but no serious collision took place.

Another Outbreak of Rioting

On Monday morning the captain of the militia asked for a conference with a Greek named Tikas who was the strike-leader. He came forward, but in the midst of the conference a savage fire broke out between the strikers and militia. As at Lexington, each side claimed that the other fired the first shot.

Ludlow, the largest tent town, stood on the prairie about a mile from the hills, with the only cover a low fill at the railway, and several arroyos or depressions in the plain made by a former flow of water. The strikers scattered over the prairie, taking cover in the arroyos, and gathering around them most of their women and children. The soldiers held their position all day behind the fill. In the latter part of the afternoon most of the women and children were removed to places of safety.

Firing continued all day, the militia maintaining that it was the only course left to defend themselves since retreat was impossible across the prairie. The strikers claimed that the militia fired first and made no discrimination between the women, children and men. The soldiers denied this and asserted that they did not discharge a gun in the direction of the tent colony except when absolutely forced to do so in order to return the fire which was kept up against them. The machine-guns of the soldiers produced little effect, because the strikers were well covered.

Burning of the Tents

Just as the dusk of evening approached the tents began burning. The strikers declared that the fire was started by the soldiers, while the latter maintained it was due to an overturned stove or explosion in one of the camps. After the fire, which destroyed all the tents, two women and eleven children were found dead in the safety pits under the tents where they had been suffocated by the gas from the burning material. The flames continued all night. Detachments of troops arrived during the following day, and hundreds of strikers joined their comrades at Ludlow. They intrenched themselves among the hills, destroyed a vast amount of property, and kept up a continual fight with the militia. Governor Ammons and his advisers became convinced that the situation had passed beyond their control. When such a lamentable state of affairs has arrived, the federal constitution provides that the national government, if requested, shall restore peace and suppress disorder. The governor made such application to President Wilson. On the 29th of April, 1914, the President ordered six troops of cavalry to the state. He asked for the withdrawal of the militia as soon as the federal force secured control, and urged that the legislature of Colorado should take up without delay the whole situation for consideration and action. He reminded the governor that it was not his province to settle the controversy but simply to maintain good order.

Arrival of United States Troops

The arrival of the regulars was welcomed by the state, the strikers and the operators. Regular soldiers obey orders, are not influenced by passion or resentment, strive to do impartial justice, and represent the majesty of the law. They have never failed to do their duty, no matter how trying the circumstances, and, therefore, they may be considered the reserve safety of the public.

A court-martial was ordered assembled at the Golden Rifle Range, and on May 13, it took up the charges against 39 officers and

men, but 100 members of the state militia were involved in the trial. It was decided to try first Major Patrick J. Hamrock, First infantry. He was in command of Troop A, which was accused of deliberately firing into the tent colony, where the women and children were killed. The charges in each case were murder, arson and larceny. It was asserted that the soldiers, by Hamrock's order, after riddling the tent colony with machine-gun bullets, saturated the tents with kerosene, applied torches to them, and by the light of the flames looted to the last shred the homes of the strikers.

The Military Court

The military court was composed of three members of the state militia, with Captain Edward A. Smith sitting as judge advocate. The testimony, as was to be expected, was contradictory, since most of the witnesses were bitterly partisan. Mrs. Helen Ring Robinson, state senator of Colorado, in her account published in the New York *World*, said that she made a careful investigation, and sifted the testimony of representatives both of "turbulent capital and turbulent labor". On one side of the conflict were the embittered strikers, and on the other, "three or four militia officers, several other men who had the right to wear the uniform of the Colorado militia, and a mob of gunmen, mine-guards, plug-uglies, and penitentiary sweepings". Insulting taunts were exchanged, until the tension was at the exploding point.

The following testimony is from the records of the court-martial:

Testimony from the Court Records

Captain Edward F. Carson, while on the witness stand, admitted that the soldiers looted the Ludlow tent colony on the night the tents were burned, causing the death of two women and eleven children.

Carson added that he saw soldiers and civilians bearing away all kinds of property. He saw soldiers carrying off suits of clothes, miscellaneous clothing, umbrellas, jewelry, blankets, and grips and satchels filled with all sorts of stuff belonging to the strikers. Even trunks were taken. Carson said that he saw some men attempting to carry some stuff immediately by him, and that he made them put it back.

"Were they such things as would have been burned if they hadn't been packed away?" the judge advocate asked.

"Certainly, the whole colony was burning down," Carson replied. "I couldn't get the right kind of discipline under that kind of conditions. I had to use my own ideas about disciplining those people down there—my own troop.

SEGUNDO COKE OVENS—COLORADO LABOR TROUBLES

"I couldn't do anything with those fellows," the officer continued. "They were absolutely untrained to military discipline of any kind. Sometimes when I wanted them to get down I had to yell: 'Why don't you get down there on the left, damn you!'

"The discipline in my troop was very bad. The men were not used to taking orders, and they had to be bullied."

Carson said, when he was asked concerning the orders delivered to him by Major Hamrock:

"Lieutenant Lamme delivered a message giving me Major Hamrock's compliments, and ordering me to take my men over to the Ludlow tent colony, and reënforce Lieutenant Linderfelt, and concluding: 'You've got to smoke them out.' "

Troop A comprised 130 men, of whom all but eight were hired mine-guards and mine-clerks, according to the roster submitted to the legislature by General Chase.

Lieutenant K. E. Linderfelt, of Troop A, Colorado National Guard, was the officer charged personally with directing the killings at Ludlow. He took the witness stand, May 29, and gave his version of that shocking event:

Testimony of Lieutenant Linderfelt

"I went to the crossroad of the Colorado and Southern track, and met Louis Tikas after he had been taken prisoner and brought down toward the depot from the pump-house. Some one yelled, 'We've got Louie the Greek'.

"A large crowd of civilians, and soldiers in uniform, congregated about us. Louis and I engaged in a conversation, and one hot word brought on another. We 'cussed each other out,' as each held the other responsible for the day's troubles.

"Louis said to me, 'I wasn't to blame for the start of the scrap, because Gorman was in charge today, and I couldn't hold the Greeks back.' Tikas called me a vile name. I lost my temper and swung my rifle at his head, but the Springfield struck him on the arm and shoulder as he raised his arm to ward off the blow.

"I never mashed his head, as has been charged. I turned Louis over to Sergeant Cullen, and told Cullen I would hold him responsible for Tikas' life. Then I walked away.

"I am very sorry that I ever hit Louis. I bitterly regret that I lost control of myself. I admit today that there was absolutely no excuse for my conduct. However, for those familiar with the conditions that existed there, there is exculpation for my deeds."

Shooting of Louis Tikas

Sergeant Davis testified that Louis Tikas, the Greek leader, who was unarmed, was captured by him and Corporal Mills. They started to take him to the railway station to turn him over to some officers. Shooting from the tents and hollow began, and all made a dash for cover. While Tikas was running, he was shot dead in his tracks. Davis said the orders were to shoot any person attempting to escape if he failed to obey a command to halt. The strikers accused Mills of shooting Tikas, and made such threats against him that he fled to Mexico, which strangely enough appeared to him as a place of refuge safer than Southern Colorado.

Having given the accounts of the witnesses against the militia, it is only fair to hear the version of the defendants. Major Edward J. Boughton, who commanded a battalion of the Colorado national guardsmen, and was later appointed by Brigadier-General Chase a member of the committee to investigate the burning of the Ludlow tent colony, gave his statement before the Federal Commission on Industrial Relations in the city of New York. Major Boughton is judge advocate for the military district of Colorado. His testimony, made on May 27, was a denial of the charge that the state militia had been brutal, and had massacred the women and children in the Ludlow colony. He was frank to say that the officer who attacked Louis Tikas, the strike-leader, had overstepped his authority, and that his action was inexcusable, but he also said that the national guardsmen, instead of being cruel, risked their lives to rescue the women and children in the tented district after the fire had been started by a bullet and later spread by the soldiers.

Major Boughton's Version

"The underlying cause of the Ludlow battle was the presence there of three discordant elements—strikers, soldiers and mine-guards—all fostering a deadly hatred. The immediate cause of the battle was an attack upon the soldiers by the Greek inhabitants of the colony, who misinterpreted a movement of troops on a nearby hill.

"A military detail went to the colony to demand the release of a man said to be detained by the strikers. The man was not delivered. Hot words passed between the soldiers and the strikers. When the detail left, the Greeks, against the protest of their leaders, ran for their guns and threatened to fight. Major Hamrock brought the detachment from Cedar Hill down to Water Tank Hill in plain view of the colony, preparatory to searching for the alleged prisoner.

Greeks Start Disorders

"Excitable women, seeing the troops, and nervous over the action of the Greeks, rushed into the colony, screaming that the soldiers were about to make an attack. Thereupon the Greeks filed out of the colony to a railroad cut, and soon after fired the first shot in the battle against the soldiers.

"There was no Ludlow massacre. The eleven women and two children who died in tents were smothered. The only non-combatant in the tent colony killed by a bullet was a small child. The bullet which struck him came from the direction of a company of miners. The guards took up a subscription for the child's father, who was frantic with grief.

Atrocities of the Miners

"The miners themselves were guilty of atrocities. One guardsman, who was shot by miners, was afterward found with his arm broken and his face crushed."

Major Boughton denied that machine-guns were used against the tent colony. He said the tents would have been destroyed anyhow, but that some of the hot-headed men rushed among them and spread the flames. Most of the guardsmen, he said, went bravely to the rescue of the women and children, exposing themselves to the fire of their own comrades in many instances. The Greeks, who precipitated the fighting, had no women and children to worry about, he added. The latter rushed into the protection of an arroyo in the rear of the colony, some taking shelter in the pits and caves under the tents. Twenty-five were saved in this way.

Regarding the death of Louis Tikas, Major Boughton testified that it was hard to excuse Lieutenant Linderfelt, who struck him over the head with his rifle. Major Boughton described the capture of the leader, the attempt of the soldiers to hang him, Linderfelt's objection, the later quarrel between Linderfelt and Tikas. He said the reports of Tikas' death were conflicting, but that the man was shot in the back and that the bullets found in his body were not of the type used by the militia. Two other prisoners were killed at the same time, and one report had it that all three were killed in the cross-fire between the miners and the soldiers.

Tikas Not Killed by Militia

Major Boughton continued that the militia had gone into the mine district with a friendly spirit toward the strikers, but their neutrality was not recognized. He said there was no gross unfairness against the miners at the time of the strike, and that when it was called, the miners were enjoying all the conditions demanded except recognition

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

of the union. He believed that a sullen, resentful peace would have been obtained with Federal aid. He admitted that there was a common belief that the guard officers were controlled by the mine operators. He also admitted visiting 26 Broadway. He denied, however, that he was employed by the mine operators, although he said he received an annual retainer from a gold mining company for legal work.

Testimony of Judge Lindsey

Judge Ben Lindsey, of Denver, demanded that he be examined as soon as Major Boughton left the witness chair. He said he was a citizen of Colorado and wanted to deny Boughton's statements. Referring to the officer's assertion that a mine strike-leader had declared that 50,000 men were pledged to fight the troops, Judge Lindsey said the man had merely stated that such would happen if the murder of women and children should be repeated. He denounced the head of the mine-owners' association, defended the strikers, and reiterated the Ludlow massacre charges.

Judge Lindsey said he believed a settlement of this trouble would be only temporary. "Mr. Rockefeller has refused to hear me," he said, "but there will be a repetition of the Ludlow incident if the Federal troops are not returned to Colorado." He charged the mine owners with unfairness, and said the military investigation was a joke.

In a statement issued later in the day Major Boughton explained that his visit to the East was undertaken to present on behalf of the governor of Colorado the real facts about the military occupation of the strike zone. He said the people in the East have not the true view of things and that the case has been misrepresented. He said that Governor Ammons' sole purpose was to settle the strike and to avoid bloodshed and that the governor was tireless in that endeavor.

The series of court-martials ended on May 30 in a general acquittal of all the defendants. On June 7, the workers and the mine-owners refused to accept the industrial peace proposed by the Federal authorities. On June 11, however, President Wilson issued a peremptory order that the strike should end. The two organizations of labor afterward agreed to amalgamate, these being the United Mine Workers and the Western Federation of Miners. This union being perfected gave the workmen the strength of numbers in their demands as well as an advisory board. The operators on their part

Action of President Wilson

found an advantage in having a central authority with which to conduct negotiations on questions of labor and wages.

Since the governor of Colorado seemed unable to control the situation, President Wilson was reluctantly compelled to keep the Federal troops in Colorado. On the 5th of September, 1914, he submitted a plan for a three years' truce to all parties in the mining strike. He urged its acceptance upon patriotic grounds, alluding to the European war and the need that "all untoward and threatening circumstances" be taken out of the life of the people of the United States. He warned the operators and miners that the Federal troops had remained as long as they ought to remain doing police duty in the strike districts.

President Wilson's Plan

Hitherto the Rockefeller interests had refused absolutely to make any concessions to the vital principles affected by the strike. The President pointed out that there were more important public interests involved in the controversy than those of the two contending parties. The presidential plan was formulated by two representatives of the government who had studied the issues in the strike for weeks with a view to finding a solution. This called for the establishment of a truce for three years, during which the state mining and labor laws were to be enforced, and all striking miners, not found guilty of violation of the laws, were to be restored to employment. Intimidation of non-union or union men was to be prohibited; a grievance committee was to be chosen by the miners, authorized to treat with the employer when trouble arose, and a commission of three was to be appointed by the President, to form the appeal body of the commissioners.

The President's letter was sent to the president of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, the chairman of the Victor-American Fuel Company, the president of the Rocky Mountain Fuel Company, and the United Mine Workers of America. The last named promptly accepted the proposal, but it was rejected by the coal operators.

End of the Strike

Finally, after several modifications had been made, an agreement was reached and signed in October, 1915, between the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company and its employees in the coal mines and coke oven plants in the state of Colorado, the same to remain in effect until January 1, 1918. The substantial points by which employers and employees bound themselves were: 1. Eight hours, exclusive of the noon hour, to constitute a day's work for underground workers and

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in coke ovens; nine hours for outside labor, except firemen and engineers. 2. Wages to be paid semi-monthly. 3. No reduction in wages prior to January 1, 1918. An increase elsewhere shall be met by the company. Other minor concessions were made by the employers, and unanimously adopted by the directors. The miners took a secret ballot at the several camps. The total number of votes cast was 2,846, of which number 2,404 were in favor of the proposed plan and agreement.

Labor Problems Caused by the European War

America's entrance into the European war forced to the front for immediate adjustment various labor questions which had been slowly formulating, and which was the cause of the chronic unrest in the labor world.

The forced cessation of nearly all forms of production in the European nations put upon the United States very extraordinary demands for materials to meet the needs of the allied nations. This country was also compelled in briefest time to provide complete armament and equipment for her own two million sons so hastily called to the army and navy. These two million young and vigorous men were withdrawn from the working forces of the country, which added to the seriousness of the labor situation.

To meet these unprecedented conditions extraordinary measures were taken by the government. This country profited by the experiences of European countries during the preceding three years of the war, where labor conditions were even much more aggravated than they had yet become in the United States.

A commission was appointed, with Secretary of Labor William B. Wilson at its head, to visit the various labor centers of the country and devise plans for the adjustment of labor problems, and to develop and report some system for fair and just disposition of all differences that might arise from time to time in labor circles.

The government outlined a plan of procedure substantially as follows:

The Government's Plan

To extend to a number of industries having war contracts the same system of wage adjustment boards which had been created for cantonment construction, shipbuilding, longshoremen's work, and army and navy clothing production.

To increase the number of War Department contracts containing clauses providing that in case of suspension of work by strikes, the Secretary of War should settle the disputes;

To enforce agreements with industries for whose products standard prices were fixed—not to reduce wages;

To encourage employers to form associations by industry groups to deal collectively with labor demands; and,

To press informally for adjustment of disagreements before they reached the strike stage, under the implied pressure of the government's war power to commandeer and operate plants.

These practices already were in effect on a small scale, having been developed gradually to deal with specific labor problems as they arose.

Labor Unrest

Continued evidence that employees and employers were not working in harmony led government officials and their advisers of the Council of National Defense to look for a more fundamental solution. With this end in view special study was given British government methods by many American officials. While recognizing that British methods might not be adaptable entirely to American labor conditions, officials gave special attention to the following British practices:

Centralization of administration of all labor matters affecting war production in a single government department;

Intrusting of mediation of troubles reaching the strike stage to another branch;

Government promotion of the organization of unorganized labor, and of employers by industries, to make collective agreements possible; and,

Heavy tax levies on war profits.

Optimistic Outlook in the Field of Labor

This story of labor strikes is too long already, though it might be greatly extended. It is sufficient, however, to provide a basis for an intelligent study of this chief of social and economic problems. One can but note the great advances that have been made in the conditions under which labor is employed and remunerated. The frictions and differences that still occur show that the adjustment is not yet complete, and that full justice and equity do not yet prevail. Yet such substantial progress evidently has been made that one may look forward confidently to a time of better understanding, and the continuing development of more harmonious relations between the two great branches of human welfare and progress, capital and labor.

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From the Original Drawing by J. Steeple Davis

STRIKERS DITCHING A TRAIN

CHAPTER VIII

AMERICAN LITERATURE

[*Author's Note:* This chapter is devoted to a delightful topic. One feels compelled to make apology for the omission of many additional names which would be included worthily did space permit. The country is indebted to its grand army of authors for its high rank among the nations, no less than to its warriors, inventors, and industrial leaders.

Anyone interested in the development of the country can not find a more pleasant and profitable field of study and observation than in the department of literature here indicated. It leads into every region of thought and action, and reflects clearly the forces which have led to the growth and culture of the nation. There are numerous "Libraries" and "Anthologies" of literature, and "Dictionaries" of authors, and a long list of biographies which will aid the student in his researches.]

Longfellow's House Cambridge Mass

OUR country has made advances in literature and invention corresponding with its progress in science, discovery, and art. There was a time within the memory of those now living, when the remark was made by an English critic that no one read an American book, but the slur, if partly true in the early years of the republic, has long since lost all force. American authors are read as widely abroad as are foreign writers at home. The number of American writers is too vast for enumeration in these pages, while every decade brings to the front a multitude to charm, delight, and instruct in all the varied branches of literature.

There are a few names, however, so interwoven with the earlier development of American letters that justice requires a reference to them. William Cullen Bryant, born in 1798, died in 1878, won dis-

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tinction at the early age of thirteen years by his spirited poem "The Embargo". This was followed by many others, his most famous short poem being "Thanatopsis", written in his teens, all of which displayed high poetic ability, and extended his reputation in every civilized country. He was editor-in-chief of *The New York Evening Post* from 1828 until his death a half-century later. His paper was noted for its virility, elevated tone, and thoroughly democratic spirit. Mr. Bryant was an ardent supporter of the government during the Civil War, aided in forming the Republican party, and was a zealous participant in all public movements. His death was due to an accidental fall, while his mind was in its full vigor, and he was as active physically as many men of half his years.

Bryant

Longfellow

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, born in 1807, and died in 1882, first became popular through his "Psalm of Life", written in 1838. This was followed by "Hyperion", "Hiawatha", "Tales of a Wayside Inn", "The Courtship of Miles Standish", and a translation of Dante. His amiable qualities made him popular with all, and in England he divides honors with Lord Tennyson, poet laureate. Longfellow is probably the most widely read of any poet in his own country.

Holmes

Oliver Wendell Holmes, born in 1809, and died in 1894, was an eminent physician whose great distinction was won in literature. Many of his minor poems are gems, and his genial wit and humor are of the most delightful nature. He was one of the founders of *The Atlantic Monthly* in 1857, in which appeared his "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table", "Professor at the Breakfast Table", "Elsie Venner", and other works. In addition, he wrote the memoirs of John Lothrop Motley and of Ralph Waldo Emerson. As a wit, Holmes outranks all other American poets, and his sparkling, graceful humor is a source of constant delight.

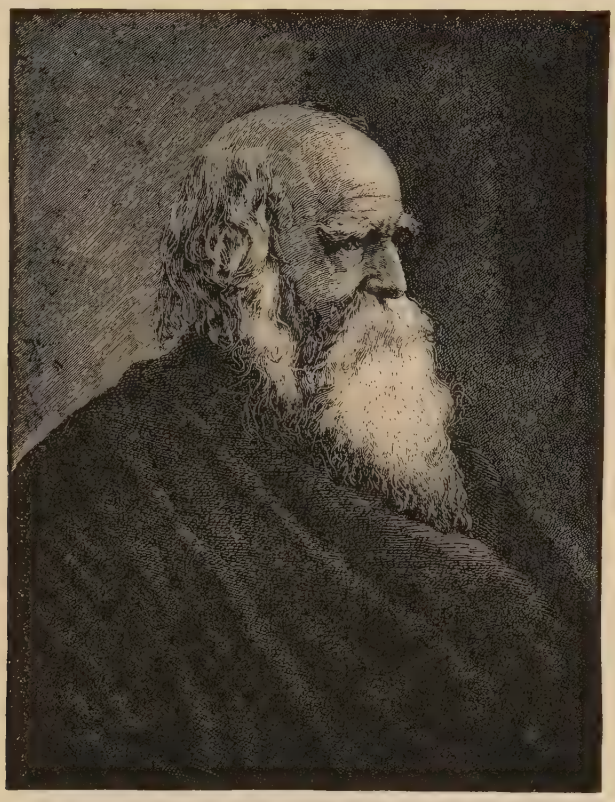
Whittier

John Greenleaf Whittier, the "good Quaker poet", born in 1807 and died in 1892, was a member of the Massachusetts legislature in 1835 and 1836. It may be said that he was born with an inextinguishable dislike of slavery, some of his most vigorous poems being aimed at that institution. He was made secretary of the American Anti-Slavery Society in 1836, edited *The Pennsylvania Freeman* from 1838 to 1839, and furnished editorials to *The National Era*, a Washington anti-slavery paper, from 1847 to 1859. Whittier was a man of broad, philanthropic spirit, greatly beloved and second

only to Longfellow in popularity. Among his best-known works are "Legends of New England" and "Snow-Bound", while some of his single poems are ranked as classics.

Lowell

James Russell Lowell, born in 1819, and died in 1891, was graduated at Harvard and gave his attention to belles-lettres, finally becoming professor of that department and of modern languages at



WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT

his university. He was a man of great genius, who served with marked honor as editor of *The Atlantic Monthly* and of *The North American Review*. His essays, "Among My Books", etc., his poems, "Cathedral", "Fable for Critics", "Commemoration Ode", and many others, are masterpieces. He was among the sturdiest opponents of slavery, and his "Biglow Papers", 1846-1848, did a great deal in organizing the opposition to that institution. A second series was published during the Civil War. Mr. Lowell was United

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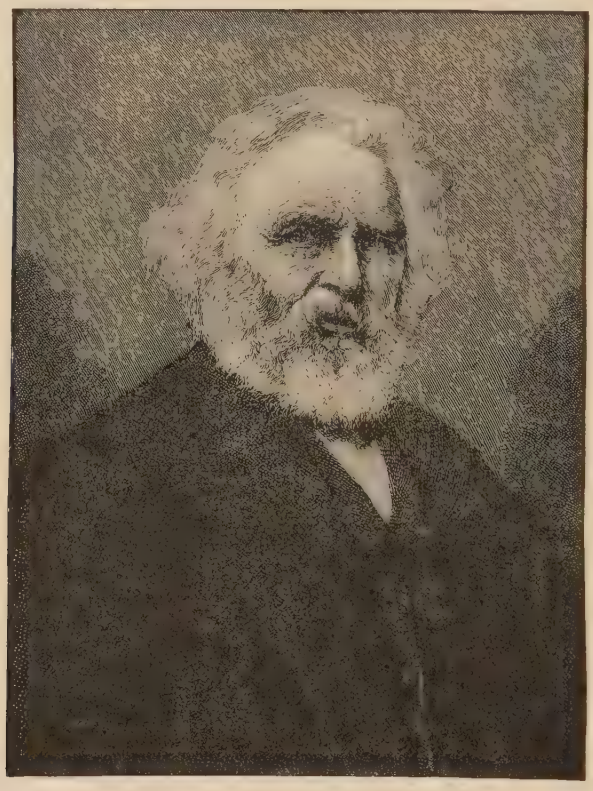
States minister to Spain, 1877-1880, and to England, 1880-1885. In both of these exalted stations he won general respect and esteem. A number of his papers on political philosophy are contained in "Democracy and Other Essays".

Emerson

Ralph Waldo Emerson, born in 1803, died in 1882, was ordained as a clergyman in 1829, but resigned his pastorate three years later,



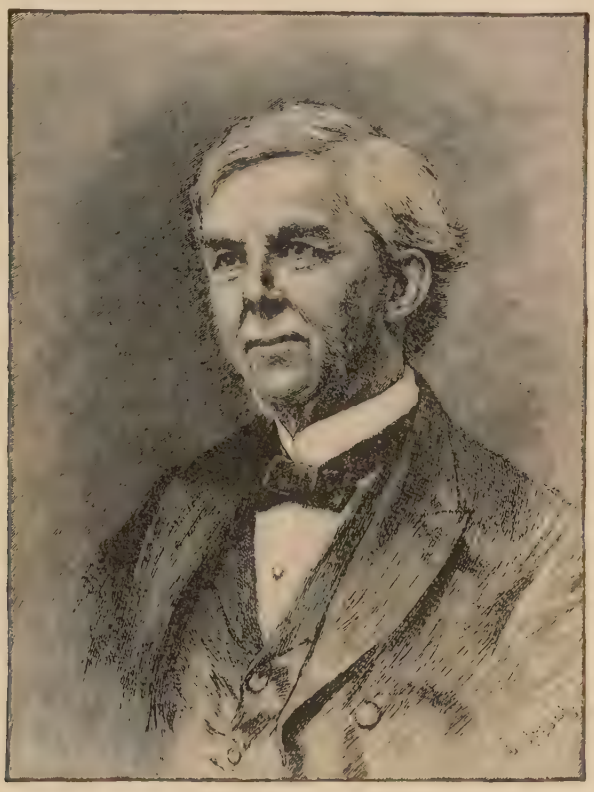
HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW

because he could not accept the formalities practiced in the church. He then entered upon his notable career as a lecturer, mostly upon biographical and philosophical subjects, besides contributing largely to periodicals and publishing works on philosophy and literature. His profound learning and majestic genius have left him thus far without a rival in influence upon the thoughtful minds of our country.

Prescott

William Hickling Prescott, born in 1796, died in 1859, was the

grandson of William Prescott, who commanded at Bunker Hill. He was graduated from Harvard in 1814, but while at sport with some fellow students he received an injury to his eyes that rendered him partially blind for the remainder of his life. His wealth enabled him to pursue his prolonged historical researches, with the result that he produced a number of works of great value and possessing



OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES

marked attractiveness of style. "Ferdinand and Isabella" appeared in 1838; "Conquest of Mexico" in 1843; "Conquest of Peru" in 1847; "Philip the Second" in 1855-58; while he also continued Robertson's "Charles V".

Sparks

Jared Sparks, born in 1789, died in 1866, was graduated from Harvard in 1815. He was a Unitarian clergyman for a short time and was appointed editor of *The North American Review* in 1824, filling the place for seven years. He became professor in Harvard

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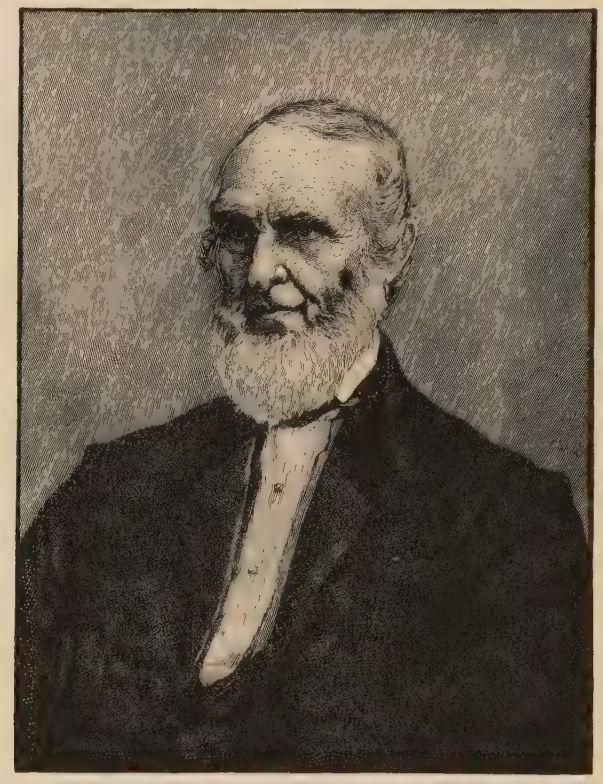
and was president of the college from 1849 to 1853. He was the author of many valuable historical works, including the "Diplomatic Correspondence of the American Republic", in twelve volumes, the "Life and Writings of Washington", the "Library of American Biography", a biography of Gouverneur Morris, and an edition of Franklin's works.



JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER

Motley

John Lothrop Motley, born in 1814, and died in 1877, was a student at Harvard and Gottingen, and afterwards secretary of the United States legation at St. Petersburg in 1841. His "Rise of the Dutch Republic" appeared in 1856, and displayed brilliant research and scholarship. From 1861 to 1868, he produced "The History of the United Netherlands", a work of great value, and in 1874 appeared his "Life of John Barneveld". Mr. Motley was minister to Austria from 1861 to 1867, and to England from 1869 to 1875.

Francis Parkman, born in 1823, died in 1893, was at the time of his death the foremost American historian. His works relate chiefly to the rise and fall of French power in America, and are characterized by a graphic, picturesque style and thorough impartiality. The most important are "The Conspiracy of Pontiac", "Pioneers of France in the New World", "The Discovery of the Great West",

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Parkman

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL

"The Jesuits in North America", "The Old Régime in Canada", "Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV", "Montcalm and Wolfe", and "A Half-Century Conflict".

George Bancroft, born in 1800, died in 1891, was the greatest of all American historians. Possessing abundant means, he was graduated at Harvard, studied in Germany, and upon his return to this country became prominent as a Democratic politician. The first volume of his history of the United States appeared in 1834 and

Bancroft

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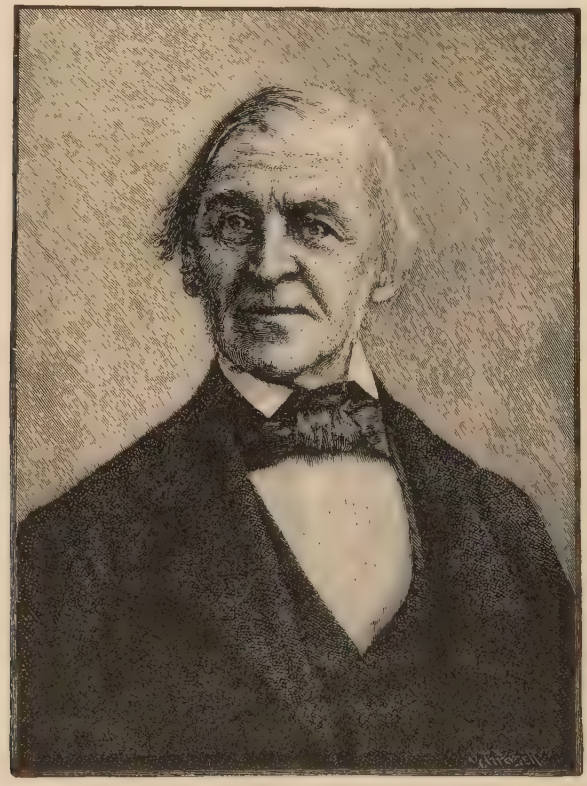
quickly attained great popularity. The remaining volumes of this monumental work were regularly published until 1882. Although it stops before reaching our modern stage of development, it forms a magnificent library of itself of incalculable value to all students of the history of our country.

Mr. Bancroft was Secretary of the Navy under President Polk,



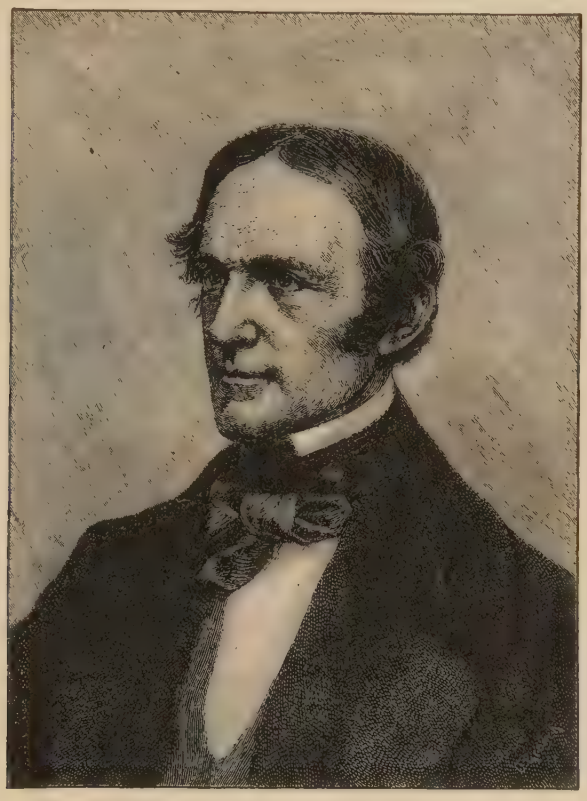
RALPH WALDO EMERSON

1845-46, established the Naval Academy at Annapolis in 1845, and in 1846 caused the seizure of California by Commodore Sloat. From 1846 to 1849 he was minister to Great Britain, and from 1867 to 1874 minister to Germany.

Wm. L. Stone, the Elder

William L. Stone, born in New York State, 1792, died in 1844. After editing a number of newspapers, he took charge, in 1821, of the N. Y. *Commercial Advertiser*. In 1832, he published a series of letters advocating the abandonment of Free Masonry, this advocacy being

due to the excitement caused by the Morgan incident. He was the first superintendent of schools of New York City. He published extensively his productions, including "Border Wars of the American Revolution", "Life of Joseph Brant", "Life of Red Jacket", "Poetry and History of Wyoming", "Uncas and Miantonomah", "Maria Monk", and "Ups and Downs in the Life of a Distressed Gentleman".



WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT

Irving

Washington Irving, born in 1783, died in 1859, issued in 1807, in partnership with his brother, the publication *Salmagundi*, whose vivacity roused general curiosity and admiration. In 1808 appeared his "Knickerbocker History of New York," one of the most humorous works that has ever appeared in any language. His "Sketch-Book", published in 1819, achieved a marked success. Then followed "Tales of a Traveler", "Life of Columbus", "The Conquest of Granada", and "The Alhambra", all of which added to and strength-

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ened his reputation. His "Life of Washington", published in five volumes in 1855, is his most ambitious work. As a historian Irving lacks originality, but the smooth, exquisite grace of his style is a continual delight, fully the equal of Goldsmith, and surpassing, perhaps, that of any other American writer. The great popularity of Irving in Europe and his native country was not wholly due to the

WASHINGTON IRVING

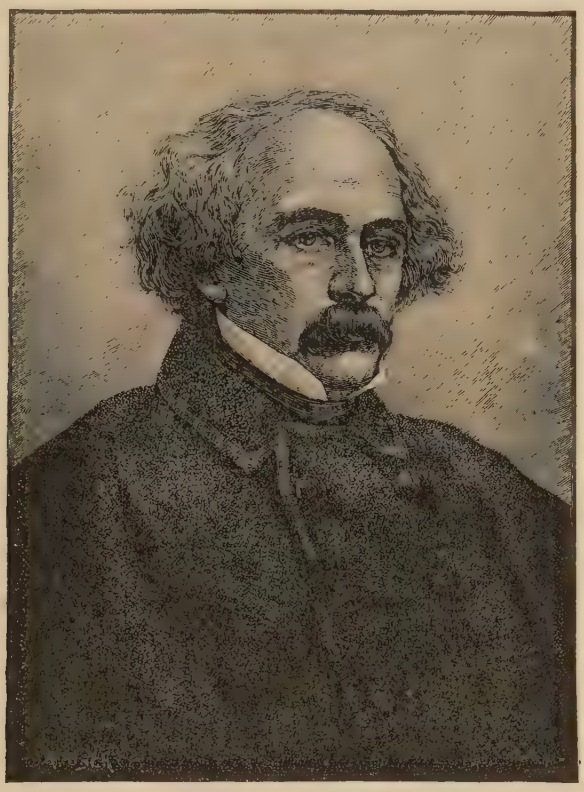
charm of his writings, but partly to his genial personality, which left him at his death without an enemy. He was secretary of legation in London from 1829 to 1832, and minister to Spain from 1842 to 1846.

Halleck

Fitz-Greene Halleck, born in 1790, died in 1867, was one of the most graceful and polished of our minor poets. He served as counting-room clerk for John Jacob Astor from 1811 to 1849. He was associated in 1819 with Joseph Rodman Drake in publishing

the *Croakers*. His most widely-known poems are "Marco Bozzaris", "Twilight", "Fanny", "Address to Red Jacket", and "Young America". PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Edgar Allan Poe, born in 1809, died in 1849, was a remarkable and erratic genius. He was a cadet for a time at the Military Academy at West Point, but became a wanderer, subject to varying Poe



NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE

moods and addicted at times to the wildest excesses. His death in a Baltimore hospital was due to his unfortunate weakness for strong drink, which seemed at times uncontrollable. As a critic he was incisive, sarcastic, and merciless. Many of his sketches displayed a gloomy, weird power united with wonderful grace and ingenuity. His most widely-known poems are "The Raven" and "Annabel Lee".

Nathaniel Hawthorne, born in 1804, died in 1864, was the most gifted of all American writers of romance. His perfect style ren- Hawthorne

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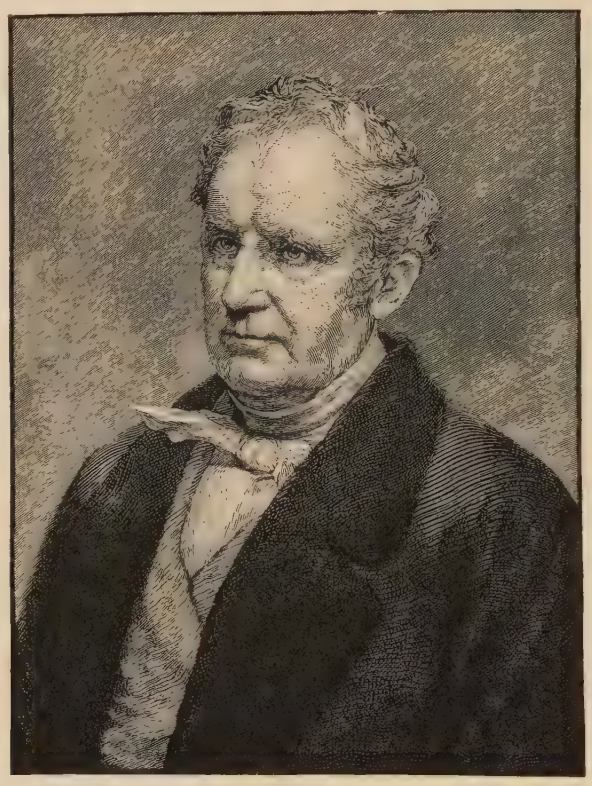
ders his works classics that may well serve as models for those who come after him. He wrote at first for various periodicals, but his "Twice-Told Tales", published in 1837, and his "Scarlet Letter", in 1849, elevated his name beyond rivalry. He was a classmate and intimate friend of President Pierce, who appointed him consul to Liverpool in 1853, he retaining the office until the close of the



JAMES FENIMORE COOPER

presidential term. It is a fact not generally known that Hawthorne was the author of the educational and juvenile works which appeared under the pen name of "Peter Parley" (S. G. Goodrich). Hawthorne wrote them when a young man, but never made any claim to their authorship.

Fenimore Cooper

James Fenimore Cooper, born in 1789, died in 1851, became famous through his romances of American history. He entered the navy in 1801, and resigned in 1811. He was thirty years of age

before he seemed to suspect his latent powers. Then, it is said, he was so wearied one day with a novel he was reading, that he expressed the belief that he could do better work himself. The result was "The Spy", one of the finest of all historical romances. This was followed in time by the "Leatherstocking Tales", with others of less merit, some of which did not add to his reputation. His "Leatherstocking Tales", however, glow with the very poetry of the woods. One seems to scent the fragrance of the wild flowers, the odor of the bark, and to hear the sighing of the wind among the branches, the plash of the mountain streams, the cry of the wolf, the honk of the goose high in air, and the stealthy signals of the red men. His Indians and "Leatherstocking" himself are idealized, but they are none the less fascinating on that account, while his admirable style and purity of sentiment give his works a place in American literature which they will hold for generations to come.

Simms

William Gilmore Simms, born in 1806, died in 1870, was the most prominent author of the South during the first half of the nineteenth century. He was an intense South Carolinian, though strongly opposed to nullification in 1832, and an ardent disunionist in 1860. The best of his poems is "Atlantis, a Tale of the Sea". He wrote a large number of romances, chiefly illustrative of Southern life, contributed many vigorous editorials to leading papers of his state, and was diligent with his pen to the last. Some of his work shows haste, but he possessed great virility and earned a creditable place in literature. Mr. Simms had the finest library in the South, but General Sherman, on his way from Atlanta to the sea, burned every volume, as well as the mansion and its furniture. "All that I saved," said Simms to the writer, "was a barrel of papers that happened to be at a neighbor's house."

Schoolcraft

Henry R. Schoolcraft, born near Albany, 1793, died 1864, was a distinguished ethnologist and scientific writer. In 1818, he made a geological survey of Missouri and Arkansas. In 1820, he accompanied General Cass on his expedition to the Lake Superior copper region, of which he published a narrative in 1821. He married the daughter of a Chippewa chieftain in 1823, and while acting as Indian agent, in 1832, discovered the sources of the Mississippi river in Itasca Lake. In 1828, he founded the Michigan Historical Society. His ethnological writings, which were numerous, are among the most important contributions to American literature.

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Charles A. Gayarré, born in Louisiana, 1805, died 1895, published in 1847, "Histoire de la Louisiane", and later, "Louisiana: Its History as a French Colony".

Hildreth

Richard Hildreth, born in Massachusetts, 1807, died 1865, is best known by his "History of the United States", but also published "Despotism in America", and "Theory of Politics", and contributed many able articles to the Boston *Atlas*, a noted Whig publication of which he was long associate editor.

Lossing

Benson J. Lossing, born in New York State, 1813, died 1891. He learned wood engraving, was an editor, and in 1850-52 produced "The Pictorial Field Book of the Revolution", in thirty illustrated parts. This was followed by "The Hudson from the Wilderness to the Sea", "Life and Times of Philip Schuyler", "Pictorial Field Book of the Civil War in the United States", and "Pictorial Field Book of the War of 1812". In addition, he published a large number of works, mostly of a biographical and historical character, relating to the United States. He also edited and annotated a number of volumes.

Fiske

John Fiske, born in Hartford, Conn., 1842, died 1901, was an indefatigable worker and hardly knew the meaning of a vacation. He stood preëminently for the best Boston traditions in moral or social life, as essayist, philosopher, historian and lecturer. The late Herbert Spencer said of him: "Beyond all question, he did an important service in diffusing, popularizing and elucidating the doctrine of evolution, while giving new illustrations and extension special to himself." When he entered Harvard at the age of eighteen, he not only possessed an excellent knowledge of the classics, but read Portuguese, Italian, German, Spanish and French, and knew considerable of Swedish, Danish, Dutch and other languages. His first book, "Myths and Myth-Makers", appeared in 1872, and his "Outlines of Cosmic Philosophy" two years later, being based upon a series of lectures delivered in 1869 and 1871. The work attracted marked attention on both sides of the Atlantic, and Mr. Fiske was launched upon his long career. "The Unseen World and Other Essays", "Darwinism and Other Essays", and "The Excursions of an Evolutionist" followed, and were succeeded by "The Destiny of Man" and "The Idea of God". His later years were devoted mainly to works on different epochs of American history. Physically he was of great bulk, and his death was due to exhaustion

from extreme heat. Had he lived longer, he would have written a complete history of the United States, and the life of Christ, the Man, in the light of archaeological discovery and modern thought.

John Clark Ridpath, born in Indiana, 1841, died 1900, took first

Ridpath

JOHN CLARK RIDPATH

honors at DePauw University in 1863, and six years later was called to the chair of English literature in that institution, and was transferred later to the chair of history and political philosophy. He displayed ability to think clearly, speak fluently and to write with charming and graphic power. His first book, "Academic History

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of the United States", was published in 1874 and 1875, and proved highly popular. He abridged it into a "Grammar School History", which was widely used as a text book in schools. His "Popular History of the United States" appeared in 1876, and quickly attained a large circulation, being translated and published in German. His "History of the World", a work in nine large octavo volumes, had and still has an immense sale. His success as an author by this time (1885) was so assured that he made writing his life work. Ten years were spent in gathering the material for "The Great Races of Mankind", his most important production, and four more years in moulding it into shape. Dr. Ridpath published "The Life of Garfield", the "Life and Times of Gladstone", and a supplement to the "History of all Nations" for Webster's Dictionary. He was one of the editors of "The People's Cyclopedia", was editor of the "Arena", wrote numerous monographs, and spent the latter years of his life in preparing his complete and elaborate "History of the United States", a magnificent work of fifteen volumes.

H. H. Bancroft

Hubert Howe Bancroft, born in Ohio, 1832, and a resident of California, made his life-work the collection of a library of 60,000 volumes as material for Pacific Coast history, and the publication of thirty-nine volumes covering the western part of North America, in which he had the aid of a large staff of collaborators.

Drake

Samuel Adams Drake, born in Boston, 1833, wrote many books descriptive of New England scenery, history and legend, such as "Historic Mansions and Highways Around Boston", "Heart of the White Mountains", "New England Legends and Folk Lore", "The Making of New England", "The Border Wars of New England", "Nooks and Corners of the New England Coast". He also wrote "The Making of the Ohio Valley States", "The Campaign of Trenton", "The Making of Virginia", and other standard volumes.

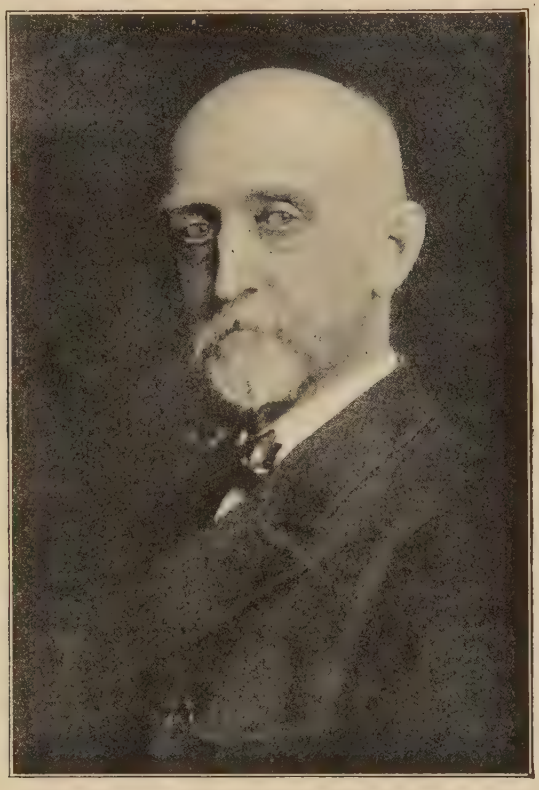
Wm. L. Stone, the Younger

William L. Stone, the younger, born in New York, 1835, was the Centennial historian for the state of New York, at Philadelphia, in 1876. Among his historical works are "Burgoyne's Campaign and St. Leger's Expedition", "History of New York City", "Third Supplement to Dowling's History of Romanism", and about ninety sketches in Appleton's General Cyclopedia and Appleton's Biographical Cyclopedia.

Hosmer

James K. Hosmer, born in Massachusetts, 1834, was professor of English and German literature in Washington University, St. Louis,

from 1874 to 1892, since which time he has been librarian of the Minneapolis Public Library. His most important books are, "Short History of German Literature", "Story of the Jews", "Short History of Anglo-Saxon Freedom", "Short History of the Mississippi Valley", "History of the Louisiana Purchase", and "Life of Samuel Adams", in the "American Statesmen" series. He edited, in 1902, "The



ALFRED T. MAHAN

Expedition of Lewis and Clark", and acted in that year as President of the American Library Association.

Schouler

James Schouler, born at Arlington, Massachusetts, 1839, was professor in the law school of Boston University, and lecturer at Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore. He was the author of "The Law of Domestic Relations", "The Law of Bailments", "The Law of Personal Property", "The Law of Husband and Wife", "The Law of Executors and Administrators", "The Law of Wills", "Life of

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Thomas Jefferson", "Historical Briefs", "History of the United States", in six volumes, and "Alexander Hamilton".

Mahan

Alfred T. Mahan, Captain U. S. N., retired, born at West Point, N. Y., 1840, was graduated from the U. S. Naval Academy at Annapolis. He served through the Civil War, and afterward in the Atlantic, Pacific, Asiatic and European squadrons; was President of the Naval War College, Newport, R. I., 1886-88 and 1892-93; and member of the Naval Advisory Board during the war with Spain. He was President of the American Historical Institution, and a life member of the Royal United Service Institution, England. He was acknowledged on both sides of the Atlantic as an expert on naval subjects. Among his valuable works are: "The Gulf and Inland Waters", "Influence of Sea Power Upon History", "Life of Admiral Farragut", "Life of Nelson", "The Interest of the United States in Sea Power", "Lessons of the Spanish War", "The Problem of Asia", and "Types of Naval Officers".

Eggleston

Edward Eggleston, born in Indiana, 1837, died 1902, wrote novels which have been translated into several languages, but he regarded them only as an aid to his preparations for historical work. He wrote a number of school histories, and, in 1896 and 1900, published two volumes in what was intended to be an elaborate history of our country. These were entitled: "The Beginners of a Nation", and "The Transit of Civilization".

Andrews

Elisha B. Andrews, born in New Hampshire, 1844, has written "Institutes of Constitutional History, English and American", "Institutes of General History", "Institutes of Economics", "An Honest Dollar", "Wealth and Moral Law", "History of the United States", and "History of the Last Quarter Century in the United States". He has served as President of Denison University; Professor of Homiletics, Newton Theological Institution; Professor of History and Political Economy, Brown University; Professor of Political Economy and Finance, Cornell University; President of Brown University; and Superintendent of Schools, in Chicago. Since 1900, he has been Chancellor of the University of Nebraska.

Tyler, Johnston and Winsor

Moses Coit Tyler, an educator born in Connecticut, 1835, was appointed Professor of American History at Cornell University in 1881, and wrote "A History of American Literature", etc. He died in 1901. Alexander Johnston, born in Brooklyn, 1849, was in 1883 Professor of Jurisprudence and Political Economy at Princeton. He

wrote a history of the United States, and "History of American Politics", and died in 1901. Justin Winsor, born in Massachusetts, 1831, died in 1897, was Superintendent of the Boston Public Library, 1868-77, and then became librarian of Harvard. He wrote a history of Duxbury, Mass., "Songs of Unity", "Bibliography of the Original Quartos and Folios of Shakespeare", "Reader's Hand Book of the Revolution", and a number of manuscripts on historical subjects, his greatest work being the "Narrative and Critical History of America", which is accepted as an authority on the subject. PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Henry Cabot Lodge, born in Boston, 1850, has represented Massachusetts in the United States Senate since 1893, and has written noteworthy books, such as "Essays on Anglo-Saxon Land Law", "Studies in History", "History of Boston", "Story of the American Revolution", "Short History of the English Colonies in America", and several volumes in the "American Statesmen" series. Lodge

John Bach McMaster, born in Brooklyn, 1852, has been Professor of American History in the University of Pennsylvania since 1883. His "History of the People of the United States", in five volumes, is a masterly work. Other publications are: "Origin, Meaning and Application of the Monroe Doctrine", "Benjamin Franklin as a Man of Letters", "Daniel Webster", and "With the Fathers". McMaster

Woodrow Wilson, born in Virginia, 1856, became Professor of History and Political Economy at Bryn Mawr College in 1885, and from 1888-90, acted in a similar capacity at Wesleyan University. In the latter year he accepted the chair of Jurisprudence and Politics at Princeton, became President of the University in 1902. He was twice elected Governor of New Jersey, and was chosen President of the United States in 1912 and 1916. During his professional career, his contributions to the magazines on the serious topics of the day, his talent as a lecturer, his high collegiate office, and his thoughtful and finished authorship, made him one of the foremost educators of the country. Among his works are: "Congressional Government, a Study in American Politics", "The State", "Elements of Historical and Practical Politics", "Division and Reunion", "Mere Literature and Other Essays", "George Washington", and "A History of the American People". Wilson

Theodore Roosevelt, before he attained his great prominence in politics and in national and international affairs, had written several books that entitle him to mention in this chapter. They Roosevelt

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

are "Winning of the West", "History of the Naval War of 1812", "Ranch Life and Hunting Trail", "History of New York", "American Ideals and Other Essays", "Life of Oliver Cromwell", "Life of Thomas H. Benton", and "The Strenuous Life", to which list, in his later years, he added "African Game Trails", the "River of Doubt", and a vast quantity of editorial matter and periodical literature.

When we come to speak of the American songsters who have delighted and charmed their readers during and since the days of Bryant, Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes and Lowell, the list is long and of necessity incomplete; for, in many instances, the poet has uttered only one or two songs, and then remained mute. Some of the fugitive pieces, which appeared in obscure publications, displayed true poetic feeling, but they are so numerous that it is impossible to name even a majority of the productions. The following, therefore, is only a partial record, to which additions are continually being made, with the certainty that, sooner or later, more than one of these authors will take rank beside the master poets of the past century.

Freneau

Philip Freneau, born in New York City, 1752, died 1832, wrote poems while in college. President Jefferson appointed him translator for the Department of State. At the same time he assumed the editorship of the *National Gazette*, and greatly offended Hamilton by his attacks on the Federalists. "A Voyage to Boston" attracted general attention, in addition to which he wrote many pieces of a miscellaneous nature.

Willis and Morris

Nathaniel P. Willis, born in Portland, Maine, 1807, died in 1870, was a brilliant and graceful writer of prose and poetry, and was very popular in the middle of the last century. George Pope Morris is remembered as one of the greatest American writers of songs. Though not the most ambitious of his efforts, the poem "Woodman, Spare That Tree", and others of simple sentiments, will live the longest. He was born in Philadelphia, 1802, and died in 1864.

Taylor

Bayard Taylor came of Quaker stock, and was born in Pennsylvania, 1825, and died 1878. He was a great traveler. His various journeys included visits to California, Egypt, Palestine, Japan, China, India, Sweden, Denmark, Lapland, Greece, Russia, Crete, etc., descriptions of which were written with admirable power and skill. During these busy years his most spirited writings were in

verse. These included "Rhymes of Travel", "Californian Ballads", "A Book of Romances", and "Poems of the Orient". He tried novel writing also, pleasing the popular taste, and produced several dramas. PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Walt Whitman, born on Long Island in 1819, died 1892, was called "The Good Gray Poet" by his friends among the critics. Whitman

ALBERT PIKE

He traveled much over the country on foot, and chose the forces of nature for his principal themes in poetry. Disregarding the technical requirements of versification, he was startlingly original and he sometimes shocked by the directness of his language. His productions are "Leaves of Grass", "Drum Taps", "Passage to India", "After All Not to Create Only", "As Strong as a Bird on Pinions Free", etc. R. W. Emerson said of "Leaves of Grass", "I find it the most extraordinary wit and wisdom that America has yet

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER

contributed". Whitman's final poem was "Sands of Seventy".

Pike

Albert Pike, born in Boston, 1809, died 1891, was a teacher in early life, and removing to Arkansas, edited the Arkansas *Advocate* until 1834, when he became its owner and two years later sold the property. He served as a captain of cavalry in the war with Mexico, studied law, and made a large amount of money in advocating Indian claims before the government. His best known poems are "Hymns to the Gods", "Ode to the Mocking Bird", "Ariel", "Lines Written on the Rocky Mountains", "To Spring", and "To Jupiter". He attained the rank of brigadier-general in the service of the Confederacy, but at Pea Ridge the Indians under his command became uncontrollable and scalped friends and foes impartially. Pike's military career came to an inglorious ending. He was one of the most prominent Free Masons in the world, being 33d M. P. Sovereign Commander of the Supreme Council for the Southern Jurisdiction of the United States.

The Cary Sisters

Alice Cary, born near Cincinnati, 1820, wrote poems of exquisite delicacy and sweetness, collaborating with her sister Phoebe, who was one of the wittiest women in the country. Phoebe was the author of the hymn, "One Sweetly Solemn Thought", treasured by all the English-speaking world, and their joint volume, "Poems of Faith, Hope and Love", has comforted and cheered many hearts. The sisters were never separated, and died in the same year, 1871.

Howe

Julia Ward Howe, born in New York, 1819, is the author of the famous "Battle Hymn of the Republic", "Passion Flowers", "Later Lyrics", and prose works, including her "Reminiscences", published in 1899. She was an active worker for woman suffrage, prison reform, international peace, etc., both as a lecturer and a writer.

Street

Alfred B. Street, born in New York State, 1811, died 1881, wrote poetry at an early age and attained a creditable rank, some of his productions being translated into German. He contributed sixteen poems to "Forest Pictures in the Adirondacks", and in 1866 his poetical works were collected and published in two volumes. From 1848 until his death he was State Librarian of New York.

Wallace

William Ross Wallace, born in Kentucky, 1819, wrote many vigorous poems for the leading periodicals of the day, often choosing patriotic themes, as "Of Thine Own Country Sing". He died in 1881.

Richard Henry Stoddard, poet and essayist, was born in Massachusetts, 1825, and died in 1903. He began writing early, and printed privately a collection of his poems. In 1880 he became literary editor of the *Mail and Express*. Among his noteworthy books are "Adventures in Fairyland", "Songs of Summer", "Town and Country Life", "Life and Travels of Alexander von Humboldt", "The King's Bell", "Abraham Lincoln; a Horatian Ode", and others. He edited numerous works and annuals, and made several translations. PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER — Stoddard

Edmund Clarence Stedman, born in Connecticut, 1833, was the author of "Poets of America", and "Victorian Poets", and was himself a poet of no mean order. After the disastrous battle of Manassas, Lincoln read to his Cabinet Stedman's war ballad, "Wanted—a Man", which rings with sincerity and passion. His critical and poetical writings since 1860 fill many volumes. He also edited the "Library of American Literature", "A Victorian Anthology", "An American Anthology", and the poems of Austin Dobson and Edgar Allan Poe. In the preparation of the latter work, which is in eleven volumes, he collaborated with Professor Geo. E. Woodberry. Stedman

Thomas Bailey Aldrich, born in Portsmouth, N. H., 1836, was one of the most skilled American writers. He began his literary career by doing editorial work in New York. From 1865 to 1874 he conducted *Every Saturday*, in Boston, and edited the *Atlantic Monthly* from 1881 to 1890, after which he devoted himself to authorship. His poems are most delicately conceived and executed, and his "Story of a Bad Boy", "Queen of Sheba", "Stillwater Tragedy", and other prose works are additions to the best in literature. Aldrich

J. T. Trowbridge, born in New York State, 1827, but a resident of Boston after 1848, did excellent work in both prose and poetry, having published one or more books each year for a period, since 1853, besides attending to his editorial duties. He handled homely subjects in his poems, with a genial humor and tender pathos. His novels, "Neighbor Jackwood", and "Cudjo's Cave", were widely circulated during and after the Civil War, and "Jack Hazard" and many other boys' books attained great popularity. Trowbridge

Paul Hamilton Hayne was a highly-talented writer, born in Charleston, S. C., 1830. He published several volumes of poems, comprising war lyrics, quiet thoughts inspired by the study of nature, Southern Poets

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

and domestic sketches. He died in 1886. Sidney Lanier, a Georgian poet, had a large nature and a sense of harmony of sound which is lacking in some of our noted poets. He suffered for years from an illness which ended his life in 1881, at the age of 39, and despite this handicap he produced work of a high order of merit. Abraham Joseph Ryan, known as "Father Ryan", was a beloved Southern poet, born in Virginia, 1839, died 1886. He was a Catholic priest and served as a Confederate chaplain during the Civil War. "The Conquered Banner" is a touching tribute to "The Lost Cause", while all his work breathes resignation, peace, and hope for troubled hearts.

Miller

Cincinnatus Heine, better known by his pen name "Joaquin Miller", stands at the head of Pacific Coast poets, and indeed his work had a glowing color hardly equaled by any other American. He was born in Indiana, 1841, but removed with his parents to Oregon when a boy. After a checkered life as miner, express messenger, editor and lawyer in Oregon and Idaho, he went to London and there published his first volume of poems. It was favorably received and his literary standing has ever since been assured. He resided on the heights near Oakland, overlooking the Bay of San Francisco, and from this ideal environment sent forth, "Songs of the Sierras", "Songs of the Sunland", "Memorie and Rime", "Songs of Far-Away Lands", "Chants for the Boer", "The Building of the City Beautiful", and other volumes.

Coolbrith and Other Poets

Miss Ina D. Coolbrith, for many years librarian of the Oakland Public Library, displayed the qualities of a genuine artist in her two collections of poems, "Songs from the Golden Gate", and "A Perfect Day and Other Poems". Herbert Bashford, born in Iowa, 1871, and Mrs. Ella Higginson, born in Kansas, 1862, have given us notable songs from the Northwest. Mr. Bashford contributes verse to the magazines, and has published "Songs from Puget Sea". Mrs. Higginson's books include two collections of poems, several volumes of short stories, and a novel, "Mariella of Out West". A career of remarkable promise was cut short in 1903 by the sudden death of Miss Virna Woods, of Sacramento, Cal. Of her lyrical drama, "The Amazons", Gladstone said, "I admire its poetic force and its Hellenic spirit." Her tragedies in blank verse were accepted by prominent actors for stage use, and it was during a visit to San Francisco to witness the first performance of one of her plays that

she contracted her fatal illness. She was the author of several novels. PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Elizabeth Stuart Phelps, born in Massachusetts, 1844, was an inspiring and spiritual writer who first gained fame as the author of "Gates Ajar", "The Gates Wide Open", and "The Gates Between". Numerous books followed, including "Poetic Studies", "Songs of the Silent World", and other poems of high order. Phelps

A leading place among *literati* is occupied by Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton, who was born in Connecticut, 1835, and published books since 1854, and contributed to the magazines. Her winters were spent in Boston and her summers in London. In both cities her weekly receptions were the center of attraction for authors and artists, and formed the nearest approach to a salon then in existence. Her poems were exquisite, and as a critic she settled the fate of many a book with her kindly, but keen and just opinions. Among her works are "Swallow Flights", "In the Garden of Dreams", "At the Wind's Will", and some graceful stories. Moulton

In the opinion of many scholars, the poems of Professor George E. Woodberry rank with the productions of James Russell Lowell. He was born in Massachusetts, 1855. After his graduation from Harvard, he was first Professor of English in the University of Nebraska, and a member of the editorial staff of *The Nation*. In 1891 he accepted the chair of Comparative Literature in Columbia University, resigning in 1904 to assume editorial duties with a publishing firm of New York City. His "North Shore Watch and Other Poems" was published in 1890, afterward came "Studies in Letters and Life", "Heart of Man", "Makers of Literature", "Nathaniel Hawthorne", "America in Literature", and a new collection of poems issued in 1904. He edited "The Complete Poems of Shelley", also the essays of Bacon and of Lamb, and was editor of *The Journal of Comparative Literature*. Professor Woodberry

James Whitcomb Riley, born in Indiana, 1853, was known as "The Hoosier Poet", much of his verse being in the Western dialect. It has been collected in some eighteen volumes, the first of which is "The Old Swimmin' Hole and 'Leven More Poems". He has a strong hold on the hearts of the people. Riley

Essentially a poet of the children was Eugene Field, born in Missouri, 1850, but during most of his life a member of the staff on various Chicago newspapers. His deservedly popular works include "A Little Book of Western Verse", "A Little Book of Profit- Field

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER

able Tales", "With Trumpet and Drum", etc. He died in 1895.

Gilder and Cheney

Richard Watson Gilder, long editor of the *Century Magazine*, was born in New Jersey, 1844, published several volumes of verse. They are characterized by a fine receptiveness and a boldness of expression. John Vance Cheney, born in New York State, 1848, had a dainty art, evidenced in "Thistle-Drift", "Wood-Blooms", and "Out of the Silence". He was librarian of the Newberry Library, Chicago.

Markham

Edwin Markham, born in Oregon, 1852, was principal of a school in Oakland, Cal., when his poem, "The Man with the Hoe", first printed in the San Francisco *Examiner*, attracted general notice. After deciding to give his whole attention to literature, he removed to the State of New York. In his later volumes, "Lincoln and Other Poems" and "Field Folk", he shows power, fine imagery and poetic fervor.

Knowles

Frederick L. Knowles, born in Massachusetts, 1869, was a poet of marked promise. His first book, "On Life's Stairway", was fresh and original, and the lyrics and sonnets of "Love Triumphant", issued in 1904, revealed a definite advance in mastery of his art.

Scollard and Butterworth

Clinton Scollard, born in New York State, 1860, was a graceful poet whose work found ready acceptance in the magazines and was issued in a number of volumes. Hezekiah Butterworth, born in Rhode Island, 1839, composed some fine poems, which were collected in two volumes. His work all counts for good and consists of more than fifty books, mostly for the young.

Dunbar

Paul Laurence Dunbar, born in Ohio, 1872, was the best representative of the African race in the poetic field. His poems were published in a dozen or more volumes, the principal of which were "Lyrics of Lowly Life", "Folks from Dixie", "Lyrics of the Hearthside", "Poems of Cabin and Field", and "Lyrics of Love and Laughter". In addition, he was the author of the novels, "The Sport of the Gods" and "The Fanatics".

Foster

The plantation melodies, words and music, of Stephen C. Foster, stamped him as a genius in his chosen field. In their peculiar sweetness they have never been surpassed. For "Old Folks At Home" he received $15,000. He was born in Pennsylvania, 1826, and died in 1864.

Other Poets

Louise Imogen Guiney, born in Boston, 1861, attained high rank as a poet, besides doing excellent work in prose. Ella Wheeler Wilcox's work is voluminous, and showed a steady improvement

with passing years. She was born in Wisconsin, 1855. Harriet Prescott Spofford, born in Maine, 1835, published several volumes of excellent verse, and a dozen or so books of fiction. Lilian Whiting was an accomplished critic of literature and art, and the author of refined and uplifting thoughts in her eleven volumes of prose and poetry. Lucy Larcom (died 1893), Edna Dean Proctor, Julia C. R. Dorr, Celia Thaxter (died 1894), Rose Terry Cooke (died 1892), Mary Mapes Dodge, Louise B. Edwards, and other women of talent and insight, have contributed to American poesy.

The names of American story writers are legion. Although it is asserted that our representative novelist has not yet appeared, more than one have established their claims to a high place in imaginative literature.

Brown

Charles Brockden Brown, born in Philadelphia, 1771, died in 1810, was the first American novelist who devoted his life to literature. His earliest publication was "Alcuin, a Dialogue on the Rights of Women", followed by "Wieland, or the Transformation", and "Ormond, or the Secret Witness". His "Arthur Mervyn" was a graphic picture of the desolation and ravages caused by yellow fever in Philadelphia in 1793. He wrote other novels, did editorial work, and issued a number of political pamphlets. Brown wrote too much, and his romances are not of a high order, though they were popular in their time. His imagination was powerful but sometimes morbid, his descriptive ability good, and his conceptions often intense.

Hale

Edward Everett Hale, born in Boston, 1822, was an editorial writer on numerous journals, and the author of "The Man Without a Country", "Ten Times One Is Ten", "My Double, and How He Undid Me", and other well-known stories. In 1856, he became pastor of the South Congregational (Unitarian) Church, Boston. He was the promoter of Chautauqua circles and "Lend a Hand" clubs, and a strong advocate of peace between nations. In 1902, he published "Memories of a Hundred Years", rich in reminiscence. He was appointed chaplain of the United States Senate in 1903.

Mitchell

Donald G. Mitchell, born in Connecticut, 1822, wrote delightful books under the pseudonym of "Ik Marvel". Among them are "Reveries of a Bachelor", "Dream Life", "Rural Studies", "About Old Story-Tellers", "English Lands, Letters and Kings", "American Lands and Letters", and descriptions of life and scenes at Edgewood.

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Higginson

Thomas Wentworth Higginson, born in Cambridge, Mass., 1823, published many books, including essays, biographies, histories, poems and tales, notwithstanding the fact that he did not begin literary work until he was forty years of age. After serving as a colonel in the Civil War, he was long a leader in philanthropic and reformatory work, leaving the ministry for this purpose.

Howells

William Dean Howells, born in Ohio, 1837, learned printing and did newspaper work in early life. Before he was appointed U. S. consul to Venice, 1861, he had contributed poems to the *Atlantic Monthly*. He held editorial positions on the N. Y. *Nation* from 1865 to 1872, and for the next nine years was editor of the *Atlantic*. He was afterward connected with *Harper's Magazine* and the *Cosmopolitan*. Although his poems are graceful, his reputation rests mainly upon his novels. He is the foremost of American authors in the field of realistic fiction. His works are numerous and include several minor dramas which are much admired for their humorous situations and cleverly managed dialogue.

Harte

Francis Bret Harte, born in New York State, 1839, died in 1902, went to California in 1854 and engaged in newspaper work, before becoming the founder and editor of the *Overland Monthly*, in which some of his most famous stories and poems appeared. He was appointed United States consul at Crefeld in 1878, and transferred to Glasgow in 1880. The last years of his life were spent in London. His stories were of marked originality and depicted life in the mining camps of the Sierra Nevadas. Among them were "The Luck of Roaring Camp", "The Outcasts of Poker Flat", "Story of a Mine", and "Tales of the Argonauts". His poem "The Heathen Chinee" did much toward establishing his literary reputation.

Jackson

Helen Hunt Jackson, born in Massachusetts, 1831, died 1885, was the accredited author of the "Saxe Holm" stories and poems, and also published, under the initials of "H. H.", "Mercy Philbrick's Choice", "Bits of Travel", and "Verses, Sonnets and Lyrics". After her second marriage, she traveled through the territories and became interested in the Indian question. She was appointed by the government to report on the condition and needs of the Mission Indians, and wrote, on this topic, "A Century of Dishonor" and "Ramona", one of the best known romances of California.

Stockton

Francis R. Stockton, born in Philadelphia, 1834, died 1902,

began life as an engraver, but became a journalist and the author of quaintly humorous and original stories. The "Rudder Grange" tales were his first success. His most noted short story is "The Lady or the Tiger". PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Dr. Silas Weir Mitchell, born in Philadelphia, 1830, wrote excellent poetry and is the author of "Hugh Wynne", "Dr. North and His Friends", etc. A volume of unique interest, published in 1904, is "The Youth of Washington, told in the form of an Autobiography". He was a prominent neurologist, and member of many scientific societies, including the British Medical Association. Mitchell

One of the most popular authors of the day and an artist as well, was F. Hopkinson Smith, born in Baltimore, 1838. He was educated as a mechanical engineer, and built the government sea wall around Governor's Island, the Race Rock lighthouse, and the foundation for the Bartholdi Statue of Liberty. He did much landscape work, and lectured on art subjects. He excelled in the portrayal of fine Southern character of the "old school", as described in "Colonel Carter of Cartersville", "A Gentleman Vagabond", "Caleb West", and "The Fortunes of Oliver Horn". Smith

George Cary Eggleston, born in Indiana, 1839, was the author of many books and served as editor of the N. Y. *Evening Post, Commercial Advertiser*, and other papers. Some of his later books were "A Carolina Cavalier", "Dorothy South", "The Master of Warlock", and "History of the Confederate War". He edited Hayden's "History of Dates", and compiled "American War Ballads". Eggleston

George W. Cable, born in New Orleans, 1844, devoted himself entirely to literature after 1879, making a specialty of Creole life and character. Among his books are "Old Creole Days", "The Grandissimes", "The Creoles of Louisiana", "The Silent South", "The Negro Question", "John March, Southerner", and "The Cavalier". Joel Chandler Harris, born in Georgia, 1848, was for twenty-five years editor of the Atlanta *Constitution*. He created the quaint character "Uncle Remus", whose sayings and doings fill several books, and also wrote "Stories of Georgia", "Stories of Home Folks", "The Making of a Statesman", and "Gabriel Tolliver". Cable and Harris

Thomas Nelson Page, born in Virginia, 1853, was the author of the character sketches "Meh Lady", "Marse Chan", etc., and the Page

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novels, "Red Rock", "The Old Gentleman in the Black Stock", "Social Life in Old Virginia", "Gordon Keith", and other volumes of local color.

Glasgow and Johnston

Ellen Glasgow, born 1874, was a Virginia author who did strong work for her years, in the novels, "The Voice of the People", "The Battleground", and "The Deliverance". Mary Johnston, born in Virginia, 1870, has an assured place among the romancers of her generation, her works being "Prisoners of Hope", "To Have and to Hold", "Audrey", and "Sir Mortimer".

Cooke

John Esten Cooke, a native of Virginia who was born in 1830 and died in 1886, in addition to meritorious poetical work, wrote a "History of Virginia", "Life of Stonewall Jackson", "Life of Robert E. Lee", and several novels.

Harrison

Mrs. Burton Harrison, born in Virginia, 1846, completed her education abroad, and spent much time in Europe, although her residence was in New York. She wrote many pleasing tales, among which are "Bar Harbor Days", "The Anglomaniacs", "Sweet Bells Out of Tune", "A Daughter of the South", and "A Princess of the Hills".

James

One of the most prominent names in the literature of the last twenty years is that of Henry James. He was born in New York, 1843, educated abroad, early contributing to American journals from European cities. After 1869 he lived in England. He was a brother of Professor William James, of Harvard. His fiction was realistic and embraced analytical character study. Among his numerous books are "The Americans", "The Europeans", "Daisy Miller", "The Portrait of a Lady", "French Poets and Novelists", "The Bostonians", "The Better Sort", and "The Golden Bowl".

Murfree

Miss Mary N. Murfree was the exponent of mountain life in Tennessee. She was born in that state, in 1850. For years, during which her serials appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly* and afterward in book form, she concealed her identity and sex under the pen name of "Charles Egbert Craddock". Some of her works are "In the Tennessee Mountains", "The Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountains", "The Despot of Broomsedge Cove", "In the Stranger People's Country", "The Mystery of Witchface Mountain", and "A Spectre of Power".

Fox

What Miss Murfree has done in her delineations of the Tennessee mountaineer, John Fox, Jr., did in the Kentucky field. Born in

Kentucky in "the sixties", his first book, "A Mountain Europa", appeared in 1894. It was followed by "A Cumberland Vendetta", "Hell-for-Sartain", and "The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come", all showing great fidelity to nature in a strange mountain region where tragedy, pathos and simplicity were a part of everyday life. PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

The books of Mrs. Edith Wharton treat of the intense feelings of the human heart and in this field she is unsurpassed. She was born in New York, 1862. Her books are "Crucial Instances", "The Touchstone", "The Valley of Decision", and "The Descent of Man". Wharton

Mary E. Wilkins-Freeman, born in Massachusetts, 1862, wrote with finished art of odd characters in the rural communities of New England, usually selecting a minor key. Among her novels are "A New England Nun", "Jane Field", "Giles Corey", and "The Portion of Labor". Her short stories fill several volumes. Wilkins-Freeman

Sarah Orne Jewett, born in Maine, 1849, wrote New England idyls, choosing cheerful country people and pleasant incidents for such books as "Deephaven", "A Country Doctor", "The Country of the Pointed Firs", "The Tory Lover", etc. Jewett

Miss Alice Brown, born in New Hampshire, 1857, charmingly describes the stern but grimly humorous characters of her native state in "Meadow Grass", "Tiverton Tales", and other volumes. Brown

Gertrude F. Atherton, though usually a resident of London, is an American author, a native of San Francisco. She deplored the commonplace in literature and fearlessly touched upon the seamy side of human nature in some of her novels. "The Doomswoman", her first publication, was a thrilling story of early days in California. This was soon followed by "A Whirl Asunder", "Patience Sparhawk and Her Times", "The Californians", "Senator North", "The Conqueror", "The Splendid Idle Forties", and others. "Rulers of Kings" was published in 1904. Atherton

Louisa M. Alcott, born in Massachusetts, 1832, was widely known and beloved as the author of "Little Women", "An Old Fashioned Girl", "Little Men", "Aunt Jo's Scrap-Bag", etc. Alcott

Kate Douglas Wiggin (Mrs. George C. Riggs), born in Philadelphia, 1857, was a popular writer for children ever since her first delightful books, "The Birds' Christmas Carol", and "The Story of Patsy" were published in 1888 and 1889. She is also the author of "A Cathedral Courtship", "Penelope's Progress", and other adult stories. Wiggin

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Alice French ("Octave Thanet"), born in Massachusetts in 1859, has given the public many graphic delineations of life in the South and West.

Bacheller

Irving Bacheller, born in New York State, 1859, was connected with the press of New York City for years, as contributor and editor. He made his greatest literary success with the novel "Eben Holden", which was followed by "D'ri and I". He has a frank simplicity of style. "Vergilius", published in 1904, is a radical departure from his earlier work, treating of incidents prior to the birth of Christ.

Chambers

Robert W. Chambers, born in Brooklyn, 1865, received an art education in Paris, and is an illustrator for *Life*, *Truth* and *Vogue*, besides being a successful author. He shows a fertile fancy in his novels, "Cardigan", "The Conspirators", "The Maid-at-Arms", and "The Maids of Paradise".

Major

Charles Major, born in Indiana, 1856, wrote "When Knighthood Was in Flower", which had a wide circulation and was successfully dramatized. A later production was "Dorothy Vernon of Haddon Hall". Booth Tarkington, another Indiana author, born 1869, added to the laurels of his state by the production of the novels, "A Gentleman from Indiana", "Monsieur Beaucaire", and "The Two Vanrevels".

Tarkington

Hay

John Hay, born in Indiana in 1838, was gifted with rare literary taste and ability, and was the author of many admirable works. He was private secretary of President Lincoln, secretary of legation to Paris, Madrid, Vienna, chargé d'affaires, Vienna, first assistant secretary of state, ambassador to England and secretary of state under Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt. Among his productions are "Castilian Days", "Pike County Ballads", "Abraham Lincoln, a History" (with John G. Nicolay), "Poems", "Sir Walter Scott", and various addresses. So far as known, he has not denied the authorship of the popular novel, "The Bread Winners". As secretary of state Mr. Hay was conceded to be the equal in statesmanship to any of his predecessors in that exalted office.

Churchill

Winston Churchill, born in St. Louis, 1871, possessed the narrative gift, and was a careful workman. He chose the line of historical fiction, for which he was specially qualified by his thorough knowledge of the history of our nation's growth, his broad sympathies, and his freedom from sectional prejudice. His leading works are "Richard Carvel", "The Crisis", and "The Crossing".

Stewart Edward White, born in Michigan, 1873, has drawn vivid word-pictures of the vast lumber regions of the North, and the phases of life in those isolated regions. His books are "The Blazed Trail", "Conjuror's House", "The Silent Places", etc. PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Owen Wister, although a Philadelphian, born 1860, located his character sketches on the great cattle ranges of the Western plains, giving us "Red Men and White", "Lin McLean", "The Virginian", and other stories that charm by their unconventionality. Wister

Frank Norris was a writer of serious purpose, born in 1870, who died in 1902, just as his place among the great writers of the day was beginning to be acknowledged. He was a war correspondent in South Africa and in Cuba before he began what he intended to be a trilogy on the industrial questions incident to the cultivation and marketing of the wheat of the world. He finished two powerful novels, "The Octopus" and "The Pit", with a realism that is epic; the third and concluding volume was destined to be unwritten. Norris

Jack London, born in San Francisco, 1876, came rapidly into notice through his literary work in various fields. Whether picturing the dreary scenes of Alaska, as in "The Children of the Frost", "A Daughter of the Snows", and "The Son of the Wolf"; or the life of a sagacious dog, as in "The Call of the Wild"; or the slums of a great city, as in "The People of the Abyss"—he wrote with marked directness and power, and an artistic handling of the subject. London

Cyrus Townsend Brady, born in Pennsylvania, 1861, took orders and was for some time an Episcopalian clergyman, but resigned to engage in literary work. He has a long list of books to his credit, the following having been published in 1903 alone: "The Southerners", "The Bishop", "The Conquest of the South West", "The Buccaneer", and "The Doctor of Philosophy". Brady

Hamlin Garland, born in Wisconsin, 1860, began story-writing in Boston, but returned to the West in 1893. He was a strong and realistic writer. His leading books are "Main Traveled Roads", "Prairie Folks", "A Spoil of Office", "Rose of Dutchers Coolly", "Wayside Courtships", "Prairie Songs", and "The Captain of the Gray Horse Troop". Garland

Moncure D. Conway, born in Virginia, 1832, became a Unitarian minister after his graduation from Harvard. He edited *The Dial*, Cincinnati, and afterward the Boston *Commonwealth*. According Conway

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to Charles Sumner, the influence of his pamphlet, "The Rejected Stone", was greater than any other published work toward hastening the emancipation of slaves. He lectured in England, and 1863-84 preached in South Place Chapel, London. His books include "The Earthward Pilgrimage", "Idols and Ideals", "The Wandering Jew", "The Sacred Anthology", Lives of Edmund Randolph, Thomas Paine, Hawthorne and Carlyle, "Emerson at Home and Abroad", "Solomon and Solomonic Literature", etc. Much of interest regarding eminent men of letters in Europe and America is contained in his "Autobiography, Memoirs and Experiences", published in 1904.

Tarbell — Ida M. Tarbell, born in Pennsylvania, 1857, accomplished remarkable work in her "Short Life of Napoleon Bonaparte", "Life of Abraham Lincoln", and "History of the Standard Oil Company", besides writing numerous magazine articles on history and current topics.

Whipple — Among the distinguished essayists and critics of the century was E. P. Whipple, born in Massachusetts, 1819, died 1886. He published two volumes of essays and reviews in 1849, and he acquired a high reputation as a lecturer on subjects connected with literature and life, many of the addresses being collected in book form.

Warner — Charles Dudley Warner, born in Massachusetts, 1829, died 1900, conducted the "Editor's Drawer" and afterward the "Editor's Study" in *Harper's Magazine*, 1884–92. In 1896, he began the editorship of "Library of the World's Best Literature", a work in thirty volumes. Among his books are "Backlog Studies", "In the Levant", "In the Wilderness", and "The Golden House".

Mabie — Hamilton W. Mabie, born in New York State, 1846, was associate editor of *The Outlook*, and the author of "My Study Fire", "Short Studies in Literature", "Under the Trees and Elsewhere", "Essays in Literary Interpretation", "Books and Culture", "The Life of the Spirit", and "Parables of Life".

Lloyd — Henry Demarest Lloyd, born in New York, 1847, in addition to writing numerous essays gave special attention to political economy. His "Wealth Against Commonwealth", Edward Everett Hale declared to be as much an epoch-making book as "Uncle Tom's Cabin"; and R. L. Stevenson said, "He writes the most workmanlike article of any man known to me in America".

Gilder — Jeannette L. Gilder, born in New York State, 1849, was a leading

critic. At eighteen she began newspaper work, showing such ability that she became editorially connected with *Scribner's Monthly* and the New York *Herald*. She assisted her brother, Joseph B. Gilder, in starting *The Critic*, which she afterwards most ably edited. Besides newspaper correspondence, stories for magazines and plays, she has written "Taken by Siege" and "Autobiography of a Tomboy", and edited a number of collections of essays, poems and sketches.

Repplier

Agnes Repplier, born in Philadelphia, 1855, became prominent as an essayist. She was the author of "Books and Men", "Points of View", "Essays in Idleness", "In the Dozy Hours", "The Fireside Sphinx", "Compromises", etc.

Matthews

Brander Matthews, born in New Orleans, 1852, was made Professor of Dramatic Literature at Columbia University in 1892. He was one of the founders of the Authors' Club and also The Players, and one of the organizers of the American Copyright League. He wrote of the French theaters and dramatists, and published "The Home Library", also "With My Friends", "Americanisms and Briticisms", "Introduction to the Study of American Literature", "The Historical Novel", "Parts of Speech", and other volumes of a critical nature. He wrote a number of comedies and edited several works.

Other Authors

The books of "New Thought" writers—Ralph Waldo Trine, Charles Brodie Patterson, Henry Wood and Horatio W. Dresser—express a philosophy that is eagerly read by tens of thousands.

Such naturalists as John Burroughs, Bradford Torrey and Ernest Thompson-Seton produce magazine articles and volumes which are enjoyable to old and young.

Our college presidents and professors, among whom are Benjamin Ide Wheeler, William James, Nathaniel S. Shaler, Felix Adler, William J. Rolfe, James H. Hyslop, Josiah Royce and Andrew D. White, have published valuable additions to literature and science.

Although America has not yet produced the highest class of plays, David Belasco, Clyde Fitch, George Ade and others have written successful dramas and comedies.

The great newspaper editors of the land, like Murat Halstead, Whitelaw Reid and Henry Watterson, have taken time from their journalistic duties to write books of value. Religious works are innumerable.

Fields

Probably the best known *littérateur* in the country was James T.

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Fields, the Boston publisher, who for many years acted as the connecting link between author and public, having a personal acquaintance with most of the famous literary men. Himself a poet, he edited, in conjunction with E. P. Whipple, "A Family Library of English Poetry", and wrote "Yesterdays with Authors". He was born in 1817 and died in 1881.

The Americans have always been noted for their humor and wit. Brightness and cleverness are characteristics of many of our poets and novelists, while a number of writers have given their whole attention to that field.

Clemens

Samuel L. Clemens ("Mark Twain") ranks far above the ostensible humorists, for he is a master of serious prose and has produced literature that will live. His humorous works contain many passages of the finest workmanship, and in controversy, his logic, repartee, and satire are of the keenest nature. Born in Missouri, in 1835, he learned the printer's trade, and at twenty was a Mississippi pilot. He roughed it in California, lived abroad, traveled extensively and was an industrious toiler with his pen. His laughable skit, "The Jumping Frog", drew attention to him, and he soon established his reputation as one of the most humorous of writers. His best known books are "The Innocents Abroad", "Roughing It", "The Gilded Age" (written jointly with Charles Dudley Warner), "The Prince and the Pauper", "Life on the Mississippi", "Adventures of Tom Sawyer", "A Tramp Abroad", "Joan of Arc", "Adventures of Huckleberry Finn", and "Pudd'nhead Wilson".

Smith

A popular humorist and satirical writer, during the times of President Jackson, was Seba Smith, whose pen name was "Major Jack Downing". He was born in Maine, in 1792, and after a career as editor in Portland, removed to New York in 1842 and died in 1868. His "New Elements of Geometry" was a whimsical attempt to overturn geometrical truths. He also wrote "Powhatan", a metrical romance, and "Way Down East". But his chief fame is as the reinventor (after Defoe) of that style of satire which consists of pretending to be one of the enemy in order to burlesque his opinions; this was far more effectively carried out in the Civil War by "Petroleum V. Nasby" (David R. Locke). Seba Smith's wife, Elizabeth Oakes, aided him in editorial work and was the first woman in this country to appear as a public lecturer. She wrote a number of religious works and was the pastor of a church in Canastota, N. Y.

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Other Humorists

Among the distinctly humorous writers of recent years were James Montgomery Bailey ("The Danbury News Man"), who was a genuine wit; Edgar William Nye ("Bill Nye"), who wrote some clever articles, but wrote too much; Henry W. Shaw ("Josh Billings"), who uttered some of the truest philosophy, as when he said: "The best way for a father to train up his son in the way he should go is to go that way himself;" Charles F. Browne ("Artemus Ward"), who beside possessing a quaint wit was able to make his spelling funny—something that no American humorist before or since has been able to do; Robert H. Newell ("Orpheus C. Kerr"), a punster, parodist, and mocker of real force; and Henry C. Bunner, long editor of *Puck*, in the foremost rank of American story-tellers and graceful poets.

The most popular humorous writers living at this time (1904) are Robert J. Burdette, born in 1844, a Baptist preacher, and a genius in his way; and Charles B. Lewis, whose resources seem to be inexhaustible. He was born in 1842 and is the creator of "The Lime Kiln Club", "Uncle Bijah", "The Arizona Kicker", and "Mr. Bowser". Finley Peter Dunne, born in 1867, says many bright things under the pen name of "Mr. Dooley". Besides this list, there is hardly a community in the Union which has not one or more persons with a local, but none the less deserved reputation for wit. Chauncey Depew and Joseph H. Choate are famous after-dinner speakers, while Simeon Ford has no superior in that line.

As one enters the current period of the twentieth century he is bewildered by an amazing array of brilliant writers. The claim is often made that this is a commercial age, and marks degenerate days in the field of American literature. Yet undoubtedly the future literary student will find that the period has produced many writers whose works adequately reflect the splendid age in which they lived and give a rich legacy to future generations.

The Copyright Laws

The history of the copyright laws is somewhat similar to that of the patent laws, the states having issued copyright privileges previous to the adoption of the Constitution. The first United States law, 1790, gave to authors exclusive rights to their works for fourteen years, with the right of renewal for the same term. In 1831 the term was made twenty-eight years, with the right of renewal for twenty-eight years, this law being still in force. A publisher to whom an author sells his work can copyright it for twenty-eight

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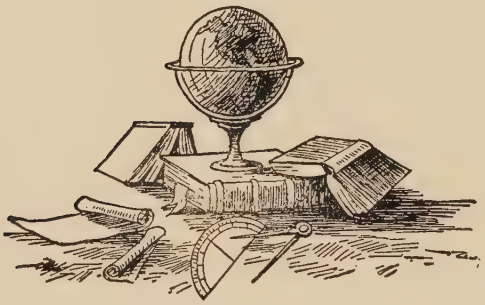
years, but at the end of that period the right of renewal reverts to the author or his heirs, the production becoming his or their exclusive property. At the end of fifty-six years from the date of the first copyright all copyrights lapse and the works become public property.

In 1891 Congress gave the privileges of copyright to foreigners from nations whose governments accord American citizens similar privileges, the reciprocity being announced by proclamation of the President. It was immediately extended to Great Britain, France, Belgium, and Switzerland, and afterwards to Germany and Italy.



CHAPTER IX

SCIENCE AND INVENTION

[*Author's Note:* This chapter includes brief mention of some of the more important American inventions and inventors up to the year 1900. No one can give an adequate estimate of the tremendous influence of American inventions upon the economic, industrial, commercial, educational, political, and ethical conditions of the world. They have gone everywhere, and have wrought marvelous changes in the conditions of human life.

To cover this great field fully would require a volume in our history. The brief sketches of this chapter are intended to stimulate inquiry and to guide investigation. The authorities are the records of the patent office, biographical books and sketches, and current periodicals.]

Armored Torpedo Boat

TURNING from literature to the field of invention, it may be said that we enter upon a domain that is boundless. Vast fortunes have been made, and equally vast fortunes await the men and women able to evolve successful and practical ideas. That the Americans are a nation of inventors, is proved by the fact that, since the establishment of the Patent Office in 1836, the number of patents granted has passed far beyond the million mark.

The word invention comes from two Latin words which mean "to come upon", to discover. An invention is the discovery, the development, of some new and better method or means of doing something. It is the application of exact scientific knowledge and methods to the solution of a problem. There is nothing new under the sun. The laws and materials of nature, of the universe, were in the beginning and evermore shall be. Noah might have had

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electric lights in the ark, if only he had known how. All the elements and laws for the production of electricity were then present even as they are today.

Nature presents a perfect balance. In the infinite resources of the universe there is a supply for every need. The existence of a need, a demand, a desire, implies that there is somewhere, somehow, a corresponding supply. It is up to us, up to the inventor, to find it.

Vast Progress in the Last Century

In the one hundred years—in the last fifty years, indeed, of the nineteenth century—invention has made of this a new world. Invention has so opened up the paths of opportunity to adventure and enterprise that the very ends of the earth have been reached. The poles have been tagged, the remotest islands have been mapped, and the most distant seas charted. The "Dark Continent" has been illuminated, the "River of Doubt" has been navigated. Inventions in the fields of steam, electricity, the art of printing, and so on, have so stimulated and promoted migration and intercommunication among mankind as to make the world a neighborhood and the race a family. It is because we have not yet learned how to touch elbows amicably that the human race is, in the first quarter of the twentieth century, wallowing in the awful welter of horrible war.

Notable American Inventions

In the field of invention America occupies a notable place. Witness a few of the more conspicuous examples: cotton gin, Eli Whitney, 1790; steamboat, Robert Fulton, 1807; typewriter, William A. Burt, 1829; telegraph, S. F. B. Morse, 1832; reaper, Cyrus McCormick, 1834; electric motor (Jacobi, 1828), Davenport, 1835; perfecting printing press, William Bullock, 1865; linotype, Otto Mergenthaler, 1866; telephone, Alexander Graham Bell, 1875; phonograph (Leon Scott, 1857), Thomas A. Edison, 1877; incandescent electric light, Thomas A. Edison, 1880; power thresher, Elijah Allen and Charles Howland, 1891; liquid air, Charles E. Tripler, 1891; aeroplane, Wilbur and Orville Wright, 1900–1905.

This list might be extended almost indefinitely. Such inventions have revolutionized the whole field of human industry and society. For instance, check up the industrial and social changes wrought in the last decade by the automobile, the motion picture, the talking machine, and the automatic piano player.

We are living in the scientific age. Note the radical changes

that appear in the curricula of schools, colleges, and universities. Formerly classic studies predominated, and the schools turned out scholars; now technical and vocational training take the lead, and the schools are turning out scientists.

Modern Implements of War

Formerly wars were a strife between massed forces of human units, and were won by human courage and personal prowess. Today we have scientific slaughter by perfected machinery and chemical formulas, produced and directed by the most highly educated and trained experts in science and invention.

This statement has had a most striking illustration in the great world war begun in Europe in 1914. American inventions have been a chief factor. The telegraph, telephone, cable, wireless, aeroplane, submarine, motor cars, tractors, "tanks", ambulances, ordnance and equipment—naval and land—typewriters, and innumerable other agencies of effectiveness and destruction, are the products of American inventive genius.

Cooper

Peter Cooper, born in 1791, and died in 1883, was noted as a philanthropist, but he greatly aided in the industrial development of the United States, being identified, as has been shown, with the introduction of the locomotive in this country. In 1854–59 he erected in New York City the "Cooper Union for the Advancement of Science and Art", in which the working-people receive free instruction. Mr. Cooper was the presidential nominee of the National Independent party in 1876. His quaint figure was familiar for years in the city of New York, where his integrity of character and his liberal, practical charity made him loved by the poor and respected by all.

Goodyear

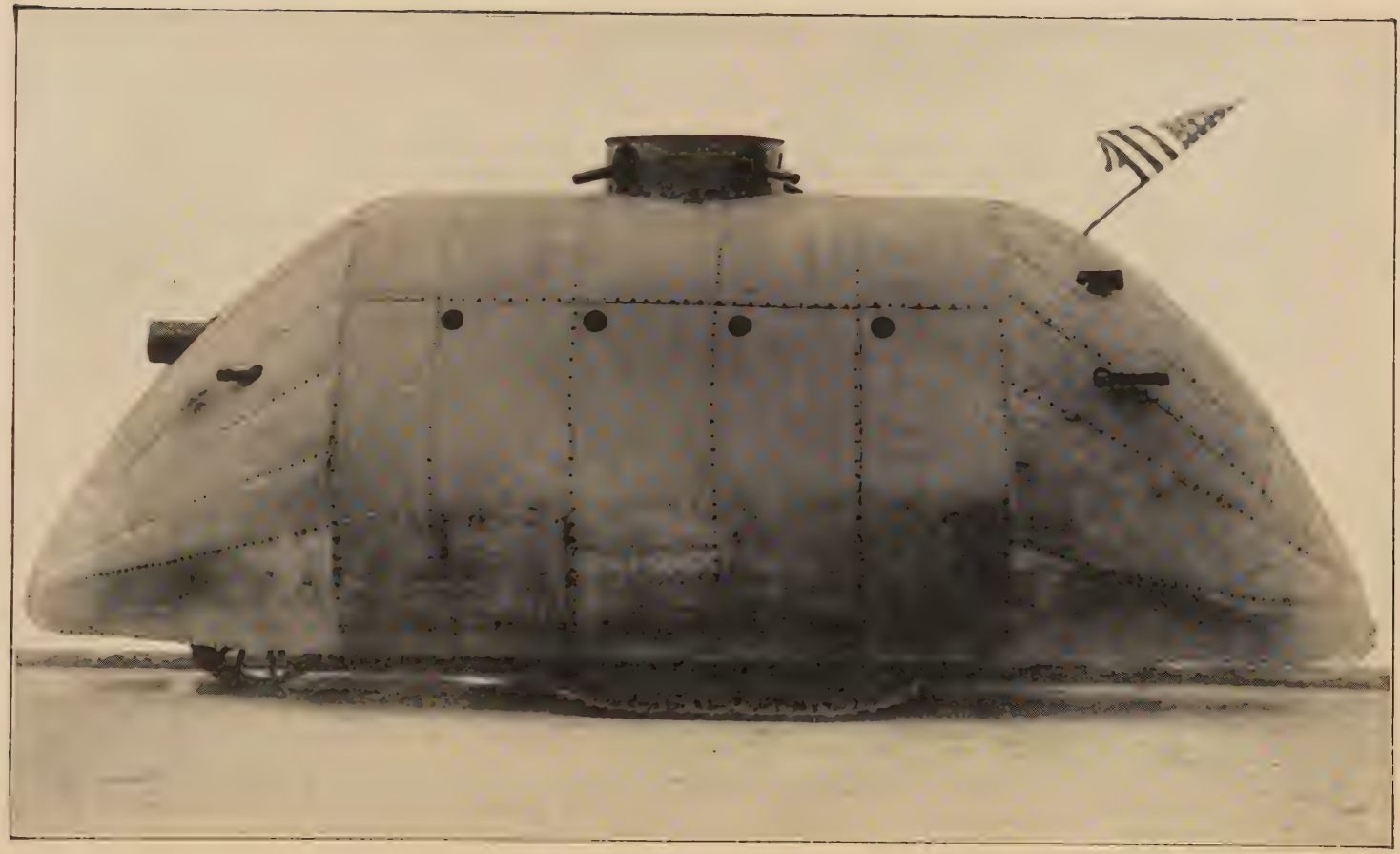
Charles Goodyear, born in 1800, died in 1860, succeeded, after long experimenting, in discovering the vulcanizing process by which india-rubber is rendered useful—an invention that has proved worth many millions.

Morse

Samuel F. B. Morse, born in 1791, died in 1872, was the inventor, as related elsewhere, of the electromagnetic telegraph, an invention so important that it marked an era in the progress of civilization.

Whitney

Eli Whitney, born in 1765, died in 1825, produced the cotton-gin, which wrought an industrial revolution in the South, and throughout the world. In 1791 the exportation of cotton from the United States was 189,500 pounds, but under the impulse of the cotton-gin it increased in twelve years to 41,000,000 pounds. It



UNITED STATES ARMY "TANK"—ARMORED CATERPILLAR MOTOR CAR

has been said that but for the cotton-gin there never would have been a Civil War, since the South otherwise could not have gained the wealth and power to enter upon that mighty struggle. Whitney's patents were so enormously valuable that several states refused to pay him his just royalties, and Congress would not grant the patents to which he was entitled. He established near New Haven, in 1798, the first arms factory in the United States, and furnished the government with a superior quality of firearms. He was the first manufacturer to construct the parts of guns after one unvarying model, so that any damaged part could be replaced from the general stock.

Colt

Samuel Colt, born in 1814, died in 1862, ran away to sea when a boy, and when fifteen years old whittled out a model of his celebrated revolver. This was the germ of his enterprise and wealth, and made him famous the world over. His immense armories for the manufacture of revolvers were erected at Hartford in 1852.

Hoe

Richard M. Hoe, born in 1812, died in 1866, made improvements and inventions in perfecting printing-presses that approach the marvelous. His most striking achievement is a press that will print, cut, and fold a sheet of paper a sixth of a mile long in the space of a single minute.

Field

Cyrus West Field, born in 1819, died in 1892, was a business man in New York until 1853. His success in carrying out his idea of laying a submarine cable across the Atlantic in 1858 has been told elsewhere. The New York, Newfoundland and London Telegraph Company that he formed consisted of Peter Cooper, Moses Taylor, Marshall Roberts, and Chandler White. Messages passed back and forth, but the cable utterly failed at the end of a few weeks. Undaunted, Mr. Field organized the Atlantic Telegraph Company, and in 1866 the submarine cable triumphed. Mr. Field received the honors due him both at home and abroad, and afterwards greatly aided in improving the rapid-transit system of New York.

Howe

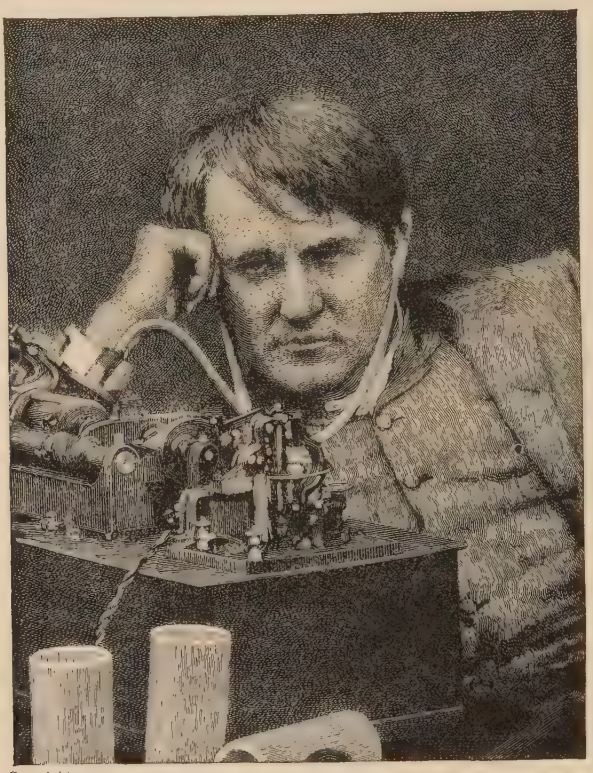
The sewing-machine is one of the most useful inventions of the age. There were crude attempts at the construction of such a machine during the early years of the century, but the first successful machine was made in 1846 by Elias Howe, who was born in 1819 and died in 1867. Like Professor Morse, Howe almost suffered the pangs of starvation while working at his invention, but he

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

persevered and became a multi-millionaire who loaned large sums of money to the government during the Civil War.

McCormick

Cyrus H. McCormick, born in 1809, died in 1884, invented the reaping-machine in 1831. This, after a number of improvements, proved so far-reaching in its benefits, that it gave a distinct impulse to agricultural development and added untold value to hundreds of thousands of acres of waste land.



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THOMAS A. EDISON

The Steamboat

The history of the steamboat and the connection of Robert Fulton therewith has been given. While yielding Fulton full credit for his work, there can be no question that John Fitch, born in 1743 and died in 1798, was much earlier than he in the field, one of his boats on the Delaware being propelled by steam in 1785, while James Rumsey, born in the same year in Maryland, invented a steamboat in 1786, but died in 1792, before his experiments were completed.

Alexander Graham Bell, the inventor of the telephone, was born in Scotland in 1847, and first exhibited his invention in Philadelphia in 1876. PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Thomas Alva Edison, born in 1847, is perhaps the most wonderful inventor and discoverer of the age. A poor newsboy on a railway train, rendered partially deaf by the cuffings received from an employee made indignant by the lad's persistent experimenting with chemicals in the baggage-car, he still persisted until he astonished the world by electrical inventions which but a few years before would have been considered as among the fancies of the wildest dreamers. Some of his astounding achievements include the quadruplex system of telegraphy, the carbon telephone, the phonograph, the microphone, the vinetoscope, the microtasimeter, and the kinetoscope. Mr. Edison was a tireless student and worker, who constantly delved into the mysterious recesses of nature, and certain, as long as his life should be spared, to make still more amazing discoveries and inventions. In this great field he had the help of the Servian professor, Nikola Tesla, whose inventive genius was scarcely second to that of Edison himself. Tesla's most astounding discovery was announced in June, 1897. It was that, after years of study and experimentation, he had solved the problem of telegraphing without wires. Although making slow but steady progress, and hopeful from the first, Tesla modestly withheld any positive announcement until he had actually sent and received signals through the earth at a distance of twenty miles. Mr. Tesla believed that a result of immeasurable importance would follow this achievement: that is, the ability to transmit power from place to place. In the field of wireless telegraphy Guglielmo Marconi, an American by residence, has won the highest success and honors.

Edison

Tesla

In 1904, a wireless telephone was proved practical, and the announcement was made about the same time that the origin of the elements was certain soon to be discovered, or at least carried far back of the present tables of elementary substances.

Wireless Telephone

Some of the greatest discoveries in the fields of science have been made by foreigners; but the belief that our scientists are to have a share in bringing more marvelous truths to light, in these and in other lines of scientific research, which indeed they help largely to develop, is our excuse for citing such foreign labors in this place.

One of these discoveries is the Roentgen electrical ray, the result

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in 1896 of the labors of Dr. W. C. Roentgen, of the Physical Institute of the University of Wurzburg. This town is one of the most ancient in Germany, dating from the seventh century, before Charlemagne. As everyone knows, it is the practice, in solving algebraical problems, to represent the unknown quantity by the symbol X. Uncertain as to the exact nature of the rays which he was investigating, Dr. Roentgen, for the sake of brevity, called them the "X-rays". The eminent discoverer evolved the hypothesis and provisionally adopted it of "longitudinal vibrations in the ether", in contrast with the transverse vibrations which are regarded as the cause of light. The efficiency of these rays in photography, in taking a picture of the bones, ossified tumors, or of foreign substances like bullets or bits of metal, through the flesh, because the flesh is transparent to the peculiar rays, is one of the most amazing revelations of science, and cannot fail to have a beneficial effect in surgery.

The "X" Rays

Previous to this remarkable discovery, Henry Hertz, the distinguished German physicist, at Bonn, had been experimenting, before his death in 1894, with electric waves, and demonstrated that they act in all circumstances precisely as do those that produce light. This fact was accepted as final proof that light waves themselves are electric, or at least that the names "light" and "electricity" do not denote independent forms of force or matter. P. Lenard, the pupil and successor of Hertz, investigated certain electric waves, whose character had been demonstrated by Professor William Crookes. Professor Crookes experimented with the action of electricity inside a glass tube or bulb, whose interior was almost an absolute vacuum. The results of these investigations were presented to the British Association at its annual meeting in Sheffield, in August, 1879. In his experiments, Professor Crookes succeeded in reducing the air in the bulbs to one-millionth of what it would naturally contain.

Investigations of Hertz, Lenard and Crookes

An interesting discovery in 1895 was that atmospheric air, which had been supposed the most assuredly analyzed of any substance in creation, contains in fact nearly one per cent of a gas which has been named argon ("inert"), on account of the impossibility of making it combine with any other substance. This element was isolated by Lord Rayleigh (formerly Mr. Strutt), a physicist, and Professor William Ramsay, a chemist; and it was found that the great English chemist, Cavendish, had discovered it over a century

Argon

before. Since then several other constituents of air have been revealed: helion ("of the sun", because found by the spectroscope in the sun's rays), krypton ("concealed"), neon ("new"), and others.

Radium

Radium is the most wonderful of all known substances. The astounding fact regarding this new element is, that it does not fit into our present chemical system; disregards all our elaborately framed laws, and threatens to overturn the scientific teachings of centuries. It must be said, however, that the latest investigations cast grave doubt on its being an element; but this only increases its mystery, since if it is a quality or a force it is far more inexplicable.

Uranium

To M. Henri Becquerel, a French chemist, was due the discovery of the uranium rays, which resembled the X-rays in their power to penetrate opaque objects. Uranium is gained from pitchblende, an ore found in Bohemia, Saxony and Cornwall, also in Colorado and probably other sections of our own country, since new discoveries of its existence are reported from time to time. Its use had hitherto been solely, through its salts, in making a rich dark pigment much used in pottery, but not indispensable; but the extraordinary interest of its new contents has led to an eager search for it by spectroscopic investigation. Becquerel was interested only in uranium, and gave no attention to the residue of pitchblende. Meanwhile, Madame Sklodowska-Curie, a Polish woman of remarkable scientific attainments, in her investigations of luminous substances, added two new elements to the seventy-odd in the known list. The outlook was so promising that her husband, Professor Pierre Curie, of the Ecole Polytechnique at Paris, collaborated with her. Their labors were beset with the greatest difficulties, but they were never discouraged, and persevered until the grandest of rewards came to them. Two new elements, as stated, were brought to light. Madame Curie named one "polonium" after the land of her birth, and the other "radium". Each was radio-active. Radium is obtained from pitchblende, only in infinitesimal quantities and after the most laborious, careful and extended processes.

New Elements

Among the inexplainable properties of this wonderful substance, which have thus far baffled the profoundest scientists, are the following: In its photographic action, it penetrates opaque objects as readily as sunlight passes through glass; it transforms oxygen into

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ozone; brought in contact with the temples of a blind man, it will produce the sensation of light on the retina; applied too long to normal persons, it paralyzes the optic nerve; applied to the unprotected nerve-centers of small animals, it kills; two or three pounds reposed in a room would probably blind or cause the death of every person present; it destroys the germinating power of seeds, and promises to prove highly useful in curing skin diseases; it causes some normally inactive substances to glow; and it maintains a heat two or three degrees above the surrounding atmosphere (the last two properties were never seen before). More incomprehensible than all these, perhaps, is the fact that radium maintains its temperature, and gives out heat, seemingly without the slightest diminution of energy, and without combustion or chemical change of any nature whatever. It is as if Christopher Columbus had set fire to one of his caravels, in mid-Atlantic, and that it had remained burning fiercely ever since, with the certainty that it would do so for many centuries to come. It looks as if the law of the conservation of energy is shattered, though it is incomprehensible how that can be; more likely it indicates a source of replenishment of energy in the universe which is beyond our present theories.

Mysterious Properties

Atoms, as the indivisible and unalterable particles of all substances, discovered and accepted a hundred years ago, now give place to "electrons", of which the emanations from radium are partly composed, and which are minute electrified masses. If the atom is retained—and the chemical facts of which it is the basis remain unaffected—it must be accepted as composed of an entire stellar system of "electrons", all in orbital motion; in other words, "atom" becomes the name not of the ultimate component of matter, but of complexes which play the part of indissoluble unities in the world as we know it. The field of investigation thus opened is profoundly fascinating.

While many important scientific discoveries are the work of foreigners, as noted in part here, yet most of them owe a large measure of their successful exploitation to American improvements and enterprise.

Patents

The Constitution gives to Congress the power to issue patents for useful inventions. Previous to the adoption of the Constitution several patents had been issued by the states. The first patent law was passed in 1790, and applied equally to foreigners and citizens,

the duration of the patent being fourteen years. In 1793 the act was restricted to citizens only, the fee was made thirty dollars, and no state was allowed to grant patents. In 1836 the Patent Office or Bureau was created, the chief officer being the Commissioner of Patents. The Patent Office was transferred to the Department of the Interior in 1849, when the latter was created. A law was passed in 1836 requiring a preliminary examination to determine the novelty and patentability of inventions. The law of 1842 made the term of a patent seven years, afterward extended to seventeen years. In 1870 a law was enacted granting patents to any person who could prove the newness and usefulness of his invention, upon the payment of a stated fee. Models are no longer required. The total cost of securing a patent is from $60 to $70.

Period VIII — A World Power —

Patent Law of 1870

Following the enactment of the patent laws, the number of patents issued was at the rate of 1,000 per year in 1850, 14,000 in 1880, 26,500 in 1900, and 45,000 in 1916.

On the material and mechanical side what remains for the inventors of today? Edison has said that electric development was but in its infancy. It is easy to see the time when the electric current will be developed wherever water power, or the presence of abundant coal or oil or gas make its production convenient and cheap, and fed into a system of cables and wires which will distribute it everywhere, even to the humblest home, to be utilized for the production of all necessary power, heat, and light.

Prophecy and speculation have little place in a historical record, but this theme is an inspiring one, and in this field "coming events cast their shadows before" with such certitude that one does not take much risk in recording what is about to come to pass. Moreover many of the readers and students of these pages are among the young, and it is a privilege and a duty to encourage attention to this field.

Economists tell us that here in America our prodigal people waste as much as they use of nature's bounties. Let our inventors set to work to eliminate, to utilize, this vast volume of waste. At this period the question of food supply is agitating the world as never before. We are discovering that even in the exclusive agricultural sections of our country, not more than one-half or one-third of the tillable land is under actual cultivation, and that the production from the cultivated land is but one-third to one-half of its potential

Waste of Nature's Bounties

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capacity. Here is a great field for experts in invention and efficiency. Thrice blessed will be he or she who makes three potatoes grow where but one grew before.

Who will successfully apply the efficiency of factory methods to agricultural production? The farm is essentially a factory, and the farmer a business man. Improved farm machinery, and scientific soil improvement, supplemented by rightly adjusted co-operative operating and marketing systems will adapt agricultural production to meet all requirements.

A Look into the Future

Is the time coming when the whole country will be gridironed with a system of pneumatic tubes which will transport farm products and other freights promptly, continuously, and economically —at minimum cost, cutting the middleman and speculator out— thus linking the consumer directly with the producer, greatly to the benefit of both? Will aerial transportation of merchandise be successfully developed?

Let some new Eli Whitney invent a machine which will successfully pick cotton, and it will create almost as great a revolution in the cotton industry as did the invention of the cotton-gin. Who will produce a successful corn harvester? The highest honors of the industrial world await the inventor who will find new methods and materials to supplement the production of paper from wood pulp, which is overtaxing resources and reaching a prohibitive cost.

Natural Resources Must Be Conserved

The fuel supply of the world is being rapidly and wastefully exhausted. Wood might be replaced by reforestation, but it is not. Coal, oil, and gas, when once taken from the earth, cannot be replaced. Alcohol, so long abused as a destructive agent in human economy, may be utilized as a fuel. It can be produced cheaply from a wide variety of materials, one or more of which are available anywhere. Water and air, which are practically universal and inexhaustible, each contain the elements of heat. Let inventors discover some cheap and available method for releasing and utilizing their gases as fuel. The sun's rays are an unlimited source of heat units. Who will mobilize these for human service? The thermos bottle, the fireless cooker, the refrigerator, are hints to the inventor of possible improved methods of conserving and applying heat and cold.

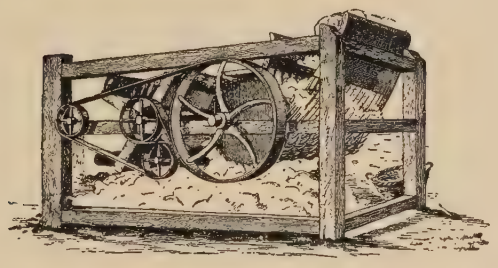
A man at Arlington, Va., has spoken in an ordinary conversational

tone over the wireless telephone, to another man in the Eiffel Tower at Paris, and a third man at Honolulu, eight thousand miles away, "listened in" to the conversation. To what extent will the wireless system of communication and the transmission of power be developed? PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Consider the marvels of the X-rays, and the wonders of radium, giving off light and electricity continuously, with no apparent source of recovery, emitting constantly Roentgen rays and X-rays, and transmuting itself into helium and then into lead. What a field of research, discovery, and invention Madame Curie's astonishing discovery has opened up.

More and more is scientific research and discovery moving out of the field of physics into the realm of metaphysics, from the material into the realm of the mental and spiritual. The scientists and physicists have abandoned their time-honored theory of the indivisible atom as the basis of matter. They now discover that the atom is not material at all, and find that it breaks up into centers of energy or force which they have named as ions or electrons. Thus another gate is opened to a vast field of possible invention and adaptation. A Change of Basis

The world is evolving new ideals which are destined to lift it out of the realm of the gross commercialism, materialism, and greed, into higher spheres of aspiration and achievement. It is a good time to be living. Thought, mind, is the greatest force in the universe. To what limits may not thought-force yet be used?



Woodrow Wilson

CHAPTER X

WILSON'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION

1913–1917

[*Author's Note:* When Woodrow Wilson entered office, patriotic Americans were striving to abolish practices that threatened the ideal of equal opportunities for all, special privileges for none. Various statutes designed to remedy abuses were passed, the ultimate effects of which could not yet be known. In the midst of this task of setting our house in order, conditions developed in the world outside that forced us unwillingly to turn our attention to more elemental matters, to the question of whether we should protect the lives and rights of our citizens against brutal, lawless force.]

ON the fourth of March, 1913, for the first time in twenty years, a Democratic President was inducted into office. It was natural that the cheering throngs that attended the inaugural ceremonies should be composed in the main of members of the party which, after many disappointments, had again won a nation-wide victory, but President Wilson was careful to point out that it was in no sense a partisan occasion. In his inaugural address he said:

"This is not a day of triumph; it is a day of dedication. Here muster not the forces of a party but the forces of humanity. Men's hearts wait upon us; men's lives hang in the balance; men's hopes call upon us to say what we will do. Who shall live up to the great trust? Who dares fail to try? I summon all honest men, all forward-looking men to my side. God helping me, I will not fail them, if they will but counsel and sustain me."

President Wilson nominated for Cabinet positions the following:

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The Cabinet

Secretary of State, William J. Bryan, of Nebraska; Secretary of the Treasury, William G. McAdoo, of New York; Secretary of War, Lindley M. Garrison, of New Jersey; Attorney-General, James C. McReynolds, of Tennessee; Postmaster-General, Albert S. Burleson, of Texas; Secretary of the Navy, Josephus Daniels, of North Carolina; Secretary of the Interior, Franklin K. Lane, of California; Secretary of Agriculture, David F. Houston, of Missouri; Secretary of Commerce, William C. Redfield, of New York; Secretary of Labor, William B. Wilson, of Pennsylvania. All of these nominations were confirmed by the Senate, and all the men thus appointed remained in office throughout the first administration with the exception of Garrison and Bryan. Of them all, the only man of much prominence in the public eye was Mr. Bryan. Mr. Bryan's knowledge of international law was meager, but his power in the party was so great that it was necessary to secure his support, and that of his great following, and at that time it was not expected that the duties of the office to which he was called would prove very onerous or important.

VICE-PRESIDENT THOMAS R. MARSHALL

An Innovation

To avoid the importunities of office-seekers, the new President laid down the rule that applications for appointment should be made to the respective members of the Cabinet rather than to himself. In the main the administration conformed to the civil service rules and displayed moderation in dismissals—more moderation than had been shown under similar circumstances by any administration since Andrew Jackson introduced the spoils system into national affairs.

The new administration lost no time in undertaking the work of carrying out the policies for which it stood. Congress was speedily summoned into special session. The House of Representatives was organized and Champ Clark was reëlected Speaker; for the first time in many years the Democrats found themselves in control of the Senate, with a Democratic Vice-President as presiding officer. In presenting his message President Wilson revived a custom disused since the days of John Adams; he appeared in person before the joint session and read his views, instead of merely transmitting them by messenger in written form. One of his objects in thus breaking the old precedent was to establish closer touch between the executive and legislative branches of the government. To the same end, President Wilson also adopted the custom of making visits to the Capitol to confer with legislators about public measures. His predecessors for many years had made use of the "President's Room" in the Capitol only in the rush hours at the end of a session when it was desirable that no time should be lost in submitting bills for the President's signature or rejection.

President Wilson Revives an Old Custom

The first great subject taken up by the Congress was the tariff. A tariff bill was introduced by Representative Underwood, Democratic leader in the House. It was not a free trade measure, but it made considerable reductions in the duties on many imports, and placed a few, such as sugar and wool, on the free list. It also provided for an income tax, authority for which had recently been given by the adoption of the Sixteenth Amendment to the Constitution. The measure aroused great opposition in many quarters, but it passed the House, in May, by a vote of about two to one. In the Senate its consideration was prolonged for five months, and so many lobbyists gathered to oppose it that the President issued a statement calling the attention of the public to the number and persistence of these persons; a congressional investigation was made of the subject of lobbying, and legislation was enacted designed to restrict the practice. Finally the Senate passed the Underwood Tariff Bill in amended form, a conference committee of the two houses presently reached an agreement, and, early in October, the measure became a law. By most Democrats it was hailed as a wise piece of legislation, but many manufacturers and business men declared that it would bring about hard times.

The Underwood Tariff Act

Meanwhile, the President had, on June 23, appeared a second

PRESIDENT WILSON READING HIS MESSAGE TO CONGRESS

time before Congress to advocate the passage of a measure for currency reform. The need of such legislation had long been felt by many men without regard to party, and various proposals and investigations looking to that end had been made in recent years. A banking and currency bill was now introduced into both houses. Like the tariff bill, it created great apprehension in banking and financial circles, but, in September, in amended form, it passed the House by a vote of 287 to 87. The Senate continued to consider it until after the special session gave way to the regular session, but, in the middle of December, it passed the Senate, in amended form, by a vote of 54 to 34. A conference committee of the two houses reached an agreement, their report passed both houses, and the Glass-Owen Bill, as it was called, became a law.

Banking and Currency Reform

The measure was designed to break the control of Wall Street over financial matters and to give greater elasticity to the currency, particularly in times of panics. By it a system of Federal Reserve Banks was established to be under the supervision of a Federal Reserve Board, appointed by the President, and including the Secretary of the Treasury. These banks were to loan money, as demanded, to persons able to give certain prescribed security, and in times of financial stringency might issue currency notes based upon securities held by them. By many people the new system was considered a great step forward, and there seems to be no reason to doubt that it helped to create and maintain industrial stability.

Trust Regulations

Regulation of the trusts next occupied the attention of the President and Congress. Five bills, familiarly spoken of as the "five brothers", were introduced to supplement and strengthen the old Sherman anti-trust act. Not all the bills passed. The legislation finally enacted included the so-called Clayton Bill designed to abolish business practices that tended to restraint of trade. It prohibited interlocking directorates in certain cases, and forbade discrimination between purchasers, and various other practices designed to create monopoly. It aroused great opposition, particularly because it limited the injunction powers of the Federal courts in labor matters and exempted agricultural and labor organizations, "lawfully carrying out the legitimate objects thereof", from its provisions. Another act provided for the creation of a Federal Trade Commission, modeled somewhat after the Interstate Commerce Commission, and having wide powers of investigating matters connected with inter-

FIRST WATER IN CULEBRA CUT—PANAMA CANAL

state trade, and more restricted powers of enforcing anti-trust laws. PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

The passage of these acts was hailed in some quarters as a final solution of the trying trust problem, and there can be no doubt that agitation of the subject was greatly diminished. In course of time, however, it became apparent that combinations of one sort or another still existed, and the United States had rarely, if ever, seen such manipulation of prices as took place in the closing months of Wilson's first administration.

The Alaskan Problem

In another chapter the story of Alaska is briefly related. The desirability of opening up the great natural resources of this vast domain had long been agitated, and the problem had been complicated by the alleged efforts of certain great interests to gobble up these resources for themselves. Alaska had already many times over paid for itself; the yearly output of fish, fur, copper, and gold was, in fact, over five times the original cost of "Seward's Folly"; but it was known that the region was also immensely rich in coal, while it was contended by many enthusiasts that vast areas could be made to produce potatoes, oats, barley, and similar crops.

Alaska is a country of enormous extent and great distances. The mighty Yukon river furnishes for two thousand miles a water route to the heart of the country, but otherwise interior transportation had to be mainly carried on by dog-sledge, pack train, and on the backs of men. Only three railways of any consequence had been built; their total length amounted to only a few hundred miles, and the country was not yet developed sufficiently to encourage private initiative in railway building.

Alaskan Railroads

In 1912, President Taft appointed a commission to investigate the Alaskan transportation problem, and this commission reported in favor of the Federal government building two new lines, one from Cordova to Fairbanks, and the other from Seward to Ophir on the lower Yukon. The Wilson administration, soon after coming into power, declared in favor of the building and operation of the Alaskan roads, and, in March, 1914, a bill authorizing the expenditure of not to exceed $35,000,000 in the work received the President's signature. The President was authorized to select lines that would best promote the settlement of the country, develop its resources, and provide adequate transportation for coal for the army, navy, and other governmental services, and he might also build docks and terminals, and lease or operate the proposed roads.

GATUN LOCKS—PANAMA CANAL

Meanwhile, the construction of the Panama canal had proceeded so rapidly that, in October, 1913, water was turned into the Culebra cut, and it was not long before small boats could travel from ocean to ocean. On the 19th of May, 1914, three barges laden with Hawaiian sugar passed through the canal from the Pacific to the Atlantic end, thus making use of the canal in a commercial way for the first time. The official opening of the waterway did not, however, take place until August 15, 1914. Several times thereafter serious slides in the Culebra cut closed the canal, but these were ultimately brought under control. The digging of the canal reflected great credit upon Colonel George W. Goethals, the chief engineer in charge, while the admirable sanitary arrangements for safeguarding the health of the workers won high praise for Assistant Surgeon-General William C. Gorgas, who directed this feature of the great work. Both officers received appropriate promotions in recognition of their splendid work.

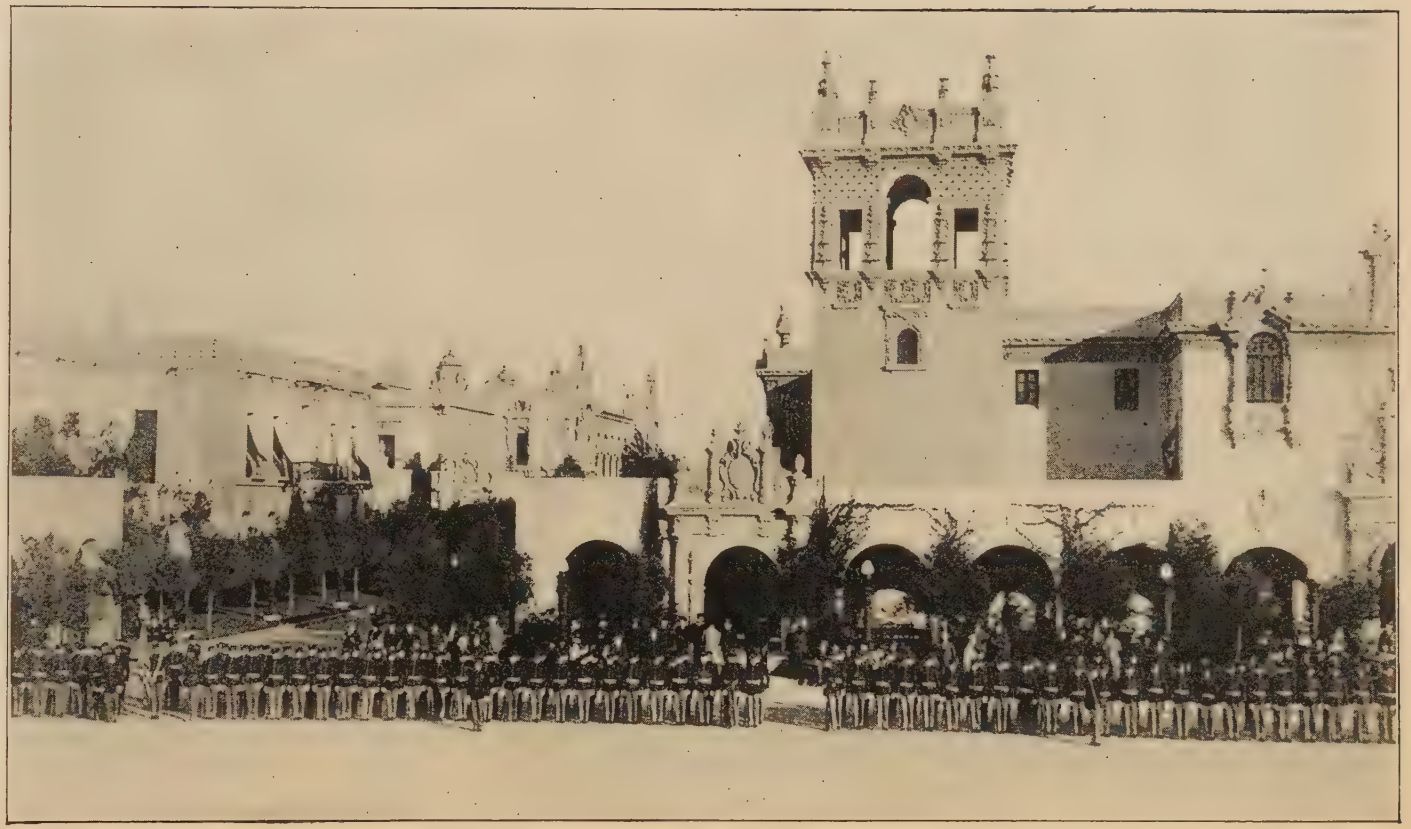
Completion of the Great Canal

The completion of the canal, the dream of four centuries, not only proved of great advantage to the United States commercially, but added much to our ability to defend ourselves against attack. Hitherto, if an enemy had sent a fleet to attack our Pacific coast, it would have taken many weeks for our Atlantic fleet to make the long voyage around South America to the point of danger; now it became possible to transfer a fleet from one ocean to another in a comparatively short time.

To safeguard the canal against enemies, Congress appropriated money for powerful fortifications, and, in due time, these were erected. Congress also enacted that no tolls should be levied on vessels engaged in our coastwise trade, but Great Britain protested that this exemption was contrary to the terms of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty by which Great Britain abrogated the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. Ultimately President Wilson reached the conclusion that the protest was just, and at his request Congress repealed the exemption.

The California Expositions

The completion of the canal was celebrated by two great expositions on the Pacific coast. One of these, the Panama-California Exposition, was held at San Diego. This celebration was more or less local in character, but its chief feature, a great horticultural display which was made possible by the semi-tropical character of the climate, was so remarkable that it drew great crowds of visitors.



UNITED STATES MARINES STATIONED AT PANAMA-CALIFORNIA EXPOSITION

The more elaborate world celebration, known as the Panama-Pacific International Exposition, was held at San Francisco. In many respects it equaled any world exposition that had yet been held, and in some others it surpassed them all. Great pains were taken to make the exposition buildings and their surroundings as nearly artistically perfect as possible. The dominant note was harmony of colors—a magnificent color symphony—while the illumination surpassed anything ever before seen. The fact that a great war was raging in Europe caused hundreds of thousands of people who otherwise would have spent their vacations abroad to travel to California to visit the expositions, and the tide of travel to and from the Pacific coast that year far exceeded anything the country had ever before known.

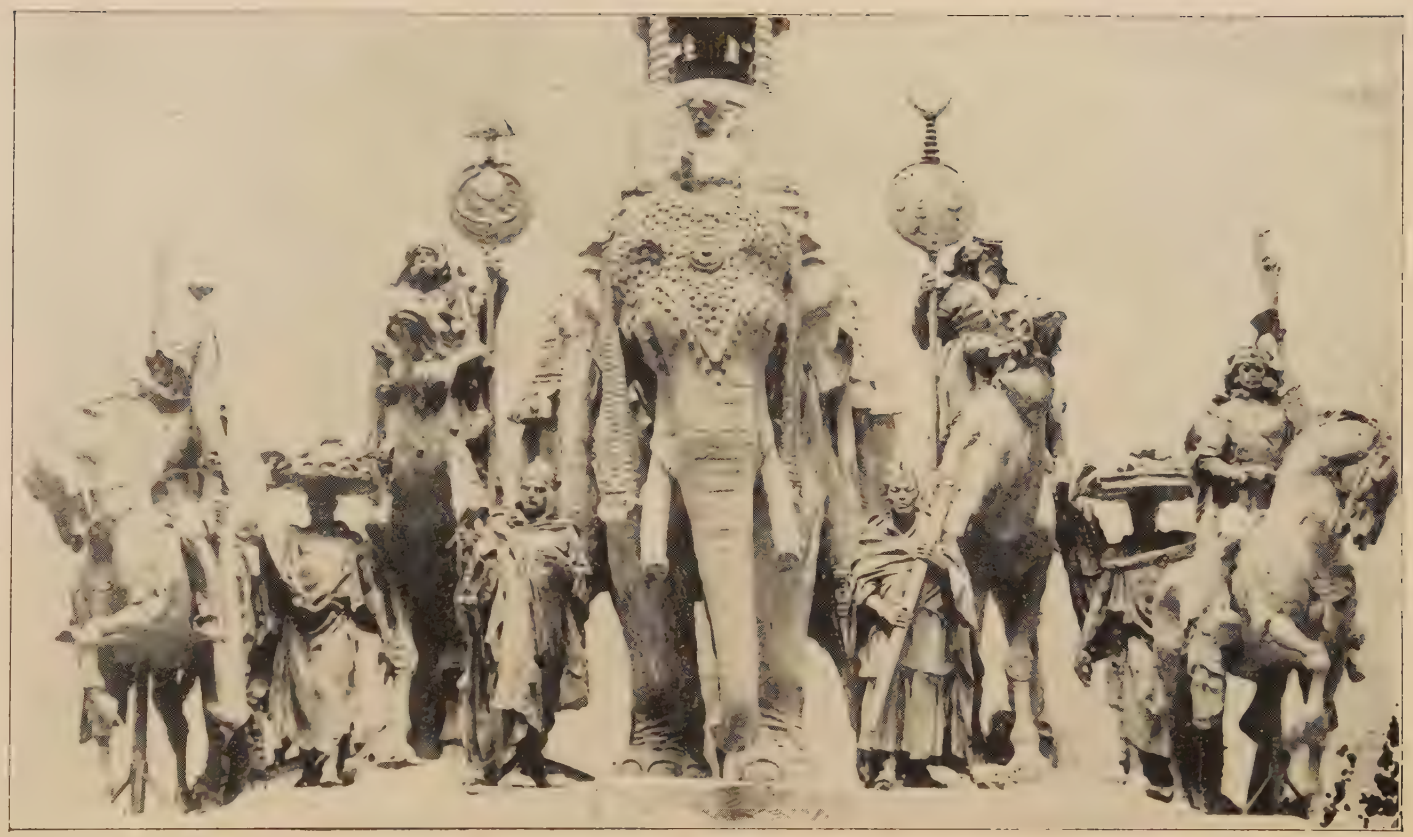
The March of Suffrage

The four years of Wilson's first administration were marked by great strides in the direction of woman's suffrage and prohibition. By March 4, 1917, eleven states had granted full suffrage rights to women, while three other states, Illinois, Indiana, and Arkansas, had conferred upon them the right to vote for all officers not specifically mentioned in the state constitutions, and sixteen states had granted some form of limited suffrage to women. Both of the great parties had declared in favor of woman suffrage, but both had expressed the belief that the question should be settled by the states individually. Many suffrage leaders, however, were urging a suffrage amendment to the Federal Constitution.

In 1916, a woman, Jeannette Rankin, of Montana, was for the first time elected to a seat in the national House of Representatives, and the public looked forward with great interest to her entry into that body. In some of the more conservative Eastern states suffrage had been voted down by large popular majorities, but the tide seemed irresistible, and enthusiasts prophesied that it would only be a few years before women in every state of the whole broad Union would enjoy the right to go to the polls and cast their ballots along with their fathers, husbands, and brothers.

A World Going "Dry"

The wave of prohibition swept onward even more rapidly than did that of "votes for women". A great impetus to the movement was given by the action of Russia and other belligerents in the Great War either abolishing or severely restricting the sale of liquor. By the end of Wilson's first administration, more than half of the states had declared for prohibition, while large areas in most of



"NATIONS OF THE EAST"—DECORATION PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION

the rest had been made "dry" by local option elections. Early in 1917, the Federal Congress voted saloons out of the District of Columbia and forbade the transportation of liquor for beverage purposes into prohibition states. The "dry" movement seemed resistless in its power, and even many opponents of prohibition

JEANNETTE RANKIN, FIRST CONGRESSWOMAN

admitted that it seemed as if it would be only a few years before every state in the Union would declare against the saloon, or else would be made dry by an amendment to the Federal Constitution.

Decline of the Progressives

Politically the most interesting problem of these years concerned the fate of the Progressive and Republican parties. The former had cast the larger popular vote for its presidential candidate in 1912, but much life yet remained in the G. O. P. elephant, and his

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

caretakers did everything possible to restore him to full health and strength. Local elections in 1913 and the early part of 1914 proved encouraging to the view that the Progressive party would prove an ephemeral organization, but the main test came in the congressional election in November, 1914. In that election the Progressives put forward candidates in almost every congressional district and for most state and local offices, and Colonel Roosevelt and other Progressive leaders made strenuous campaigns in behalf of their ticket. The results, however, showed a strong swing back to the Republican party. The total Progressive vote was less than half of that of 1912, while the Republicans, aided by hard times and discontent with Democratic rule, carried many states and fell only a little short of winning a majority in the lower house of Congress.

Election of Senators by Direct Vote

In this election, for the first time in American history, United States senators were elected by direct vote of the people, in accordance with the provisions of the Seventeenth Amendment, which had recently been added to the Federal Constitution.

When Woodrow Wilson became President, it was universally expected that the main problems of his administration would be those connected with questions of internal reforms, but fate willed it otherwise. Circumstances over which the United States had little or no control combined to produce grave international complications that threatened the peace and safety of the republic and tended to turn public attention away from our own domestic concerns.

At the outset, the administration stood committed to a program of peace. Mr. Bryan, the new Secretary of State, was an ardent pacifist, and he early turned his attention to the negotiation of

Arbitration Treaties

treaties of arbitration. A number of such treaties already had been concluded under the administration of Mr. Taft. So eager was the new administration to display its good will toward all the world that it even negotiated a treaty with the United States of Colombia for the payment by us of $25,000,000 in liquidation of the dissatisfaction of Colombia over the independence of Panama and our acquisition of the Panama canal zone. Much opposition developed, however, to this treaty, and the Senate could not be brought to ratify it even after the amount had been reduced to $15,000,000.

Revival of anti-Japanese agitation in California and an attempt

to enact legislation prohibiting Japanese and other aliens ineligible for citizenship from buying or holding agricultural land provoked a vigorous protest from Japan. President Wilson sent Secretary Bryan to California to protest against such legislation, but his influence was not sufficient to prevent its enactment. As the Japanese controlled less than one per cent of the arable land of the state and as their number was not increasing, it was difficult for dwellers farther east to see the necessity for such laws, particularly when they endangered the good relations existing with an old and honored friend. Jingoes in both America and Japan did their best to stir up trouble, but happily their efforts proved unavailing. While it was perhaps better that Mongolian peoples should not be permitted to enter the United States as settlers, yet it was felt that those already here should be treated with tolerance and without discrimination.

Chaos in Mexico

Meanwhile, the Mexican problem had grown more troublesome. Although a well-meaning man, President Madero was unequal to the task of maintaining peace and order among his ignorant and excitable people. Several uprisings against his authority occurred, and finally, in February, 1913, General Victoriano Huerta, one of Madero's own officers, headed a sudden rebellion in which Madero himself was made a prisoner. General Huerta was proclaimed Provisional President, and Madero was ordered into exile but was assassinated by some of Huerta's men and perhaps with Huerta's connivance.

Huerta Not Recognized by Wilson

President Taft had already established a military patrol along the Mexican border and had proclaimed an embargo against the shipment of arms and ammunition into the country, but he left the question of the recognition of Huerta to his successor. President Wilson soon announced that he would not recognize a government that had been established in such a manner as Huerta's, and he sent a confidential agent, in the person of ex-Governor John Lind of Minnesota, to Mexico to suggest a cessation of hostilities in that republic and the holding of a free and fair election, by the results of which all parties should abide. This suggestion Huerta refused to accept. Henry Lane Wilson, the American Ambassador to Mexico, favored recognizing Huerta, and his resignation was accepted by President Wilson.

On the 9th of October, 1913, Huerta imprisoned more than a

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

hundred of the members of the Chamber of Deputies and dissolved that body. He also suspended the constitution and assumed the powers of a dictator. At an election held on the 26th of the same

PRESIDENT PORFIRIO DIAZ
Upbuilder of Mexico

month Huerta was chosen President, but only a small number of voters participated.

Uprisings in Mexico

Meanwhile, uprisings had taken place in various parts of the country against the usurper. That in the north was the most formidable, and those who took part in it called themselves Con-

stitutionalists. The chief leaders in the north were Venustiano Carranza and Francisco Villa. PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Carranza was a man of education, and his general intentions, at least at that time, seem to have been good, but he was a man

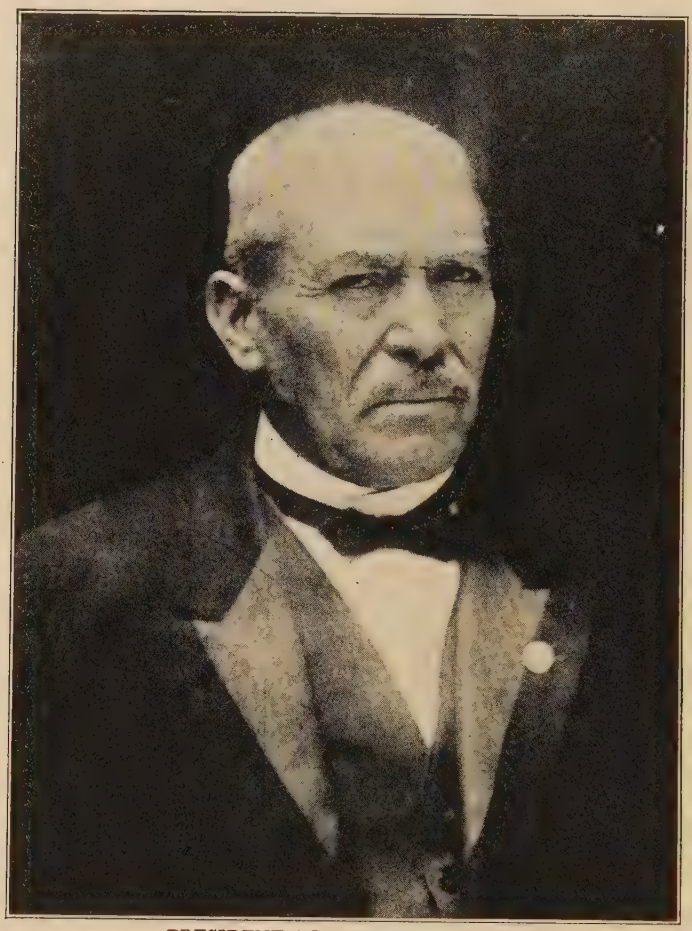
PRESIDENT FRANCISCO I. MADERO
Deposed and Murdered

of only moderate ability, possessing little breadth of vision, and he was also exceedingly vain. Villa was of an altogether different stamp. So many stories were related about this remarkable man that it seemed practically impossible to sift the true from the false, but it appeared that he sprang from the peon class and that it was

Carranza and Villa

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

only recently that he had learned to write his name. For years he was a bandit and displayed great ingenuity and skill in escaping from the Mexican authorities. Personally he was a man of great courage, a splendid rider, ruthless and energetic, a natural-born



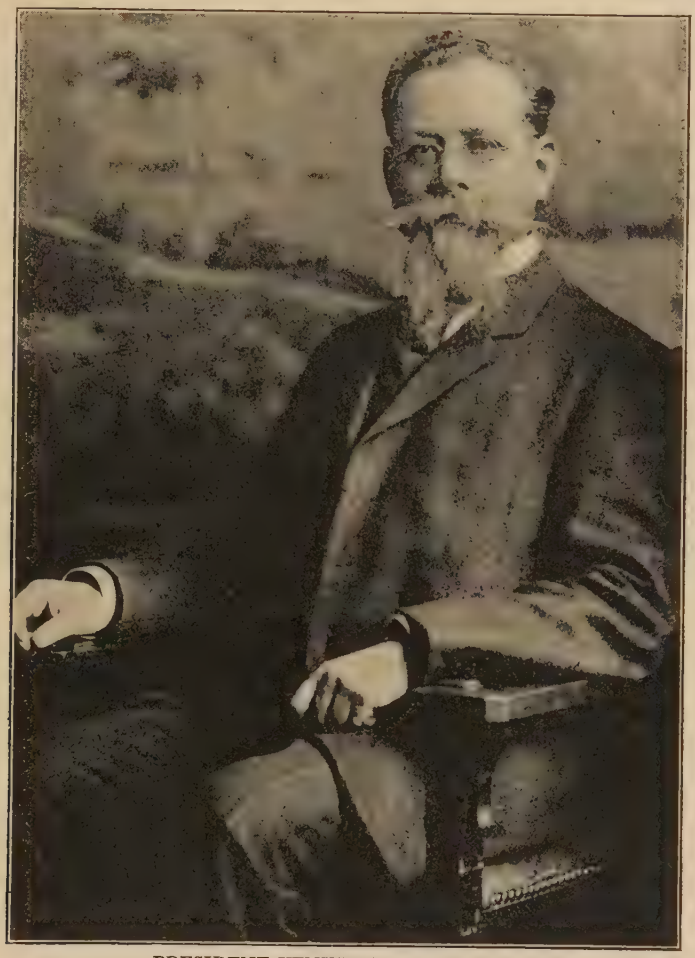
PRESIDENT VICTORIANO HUERTA
Deposed and Banished

leader, around whom the ignorant peons rallied as to a savior against the rich and powerful.

Mexican Outrages

Since the overthrow of the Diaz régime many Americans in Mexico had been murdered or mistreated, and millions of dollars' worth of American property had been either confiscated or destroyed. Small parties of Mexicans had even crossed the border and com-

mitted robberies and murders on the soil of the United States. Insistent demands were made upon the administration at Washington to put an end to the carnival of misrule and to give protection to our citizens, but President Wilson announced a policy of "watch- PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —



PRESIDENT VENUSTIANO CARRANZA
Restorer of Mexico

ful waiting", and refused to intervene directly in Mexican affairs. Our naval force in the Gulf region was, however, increased, and strong military guards were maintained along the border. Guarding Our Border

The moral influence of the United States was also thrown against the Huerta government and in favor of the Constitutionalists,

while by lifting the embargo on the export of arms to Mexico the Washington government rendered more material aid to Carranza and Villa and their followers.

On the 9th of April, 1914, a small boat from an American naval vessel landed at Tampico for the purpose of obtaining supplies, and the Huerta authorities seized the boat and arrested the crew.

FRANCISCO (PANCHO) VILLA
Mexican Rebel Leader

Reparation Demanded

Admiral Mayo, who commanded the American fleet in those waters, peremptorily demanded an official apology, punishment of the Mexican officer responsible, and a salute to the American flag.

The prisoners had already been released, and the demands were complied with except that Huerta declined to salute the flag. President Wilson sustained Admiral Mayo and gave Huerta until six

o'clock P. M. of the nineteenth to order the salute. Huerta failed to comply, and the President then appeared before Congress and asked power to use the armed forces of the United States to obtain from Huerta and his adherents amends for the affronts and indignities offered against the United States. After a debate of two days, the authority asked was given by an overwhelming vote.

Meanwhile, Admiral Fletcher, acting under instructions from Washington, demanded the surrender of the town of Vera Cruz.

A. B. C. MEDIATORS WITH MEXICO

Seizure of Vera Cruz

When the demand was refused, several hundred bluejackets and marines were landed to seize the place by force. The Mexicans resisted, the town was shelled by the fleet, and several hundred Americans and Mexicans, many of the latter non-combatants, were killed or wounded. Ultimately the American forces gained possession of the town.

More vessels were hastily sent to Mexican waters, and several thousand troops were hurried to Vera Cruz under command of General Frederick Funston. The Mexicans made no effort to retake the place, nor did the Americans try to extend their conquest.

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Argentina, Brazil, and Chile now offered to act as mediators in the conflict, and both the United States and Huerta accepted their good offices. Representatives of the five powers concerned met in conference at Niagara Falls, Canada, in the middle of May, and, after conferring for some weeks, signed an agreement to the effect that Huerta was to withdraw and that the several factions in Mexico should unite to set up a government.

TROOPS ON WAY TO MEXICAN BORDER

Resignation of Huerta

In July, Huerta resigned and left the country, and the Constitutionalist forces were soon in possession of the capital. The moment seemed opportune for a pacification of the country, but Carranza and Villa quarreled, and a new war broke out.

Late in November, the American forces were withdrawn from Vera Cruz, but a large part of our regular army continued to patrol the border, notwithstanding which, bands of Mexicans frequently crossed into the United States on murderous forays.

Throughout 1915, the Carranza government gradually gained in strength, and, in October, the United States accorded Carranza

recognition as the *de facto* ruler. Various other powers did likewise. The United States also permitted Carranza's troops to cross its territory to attack the Villa forces.

In November, a border skirmish took place at Nogales, Arizona, in which many of Villa's followers and some American soldiers were killed. Villa's fortunes were by this time at a low ebb, and there seemed reason to hope that he would presently be overthrown.

The Columbus Raid

Angered by the aid given his enemies and encouraged perhaps by German agents, Villa, on March 9, 1916, led a murderous raid on the town of Columbus, New Mexico. Seventeen Americans, including eight soldiers, were killed. Regulars stationed in and near the place returned the Mexican fire with vigor and subsequently chased the raiders some distance into Mexico, killing many of them, including Villa's chief lieutenant.

It had by this time become evident that the policy of "watchful waiting" had broken down. A punitive expedition of several thousand men under General John J. Pershing was dispatched into Mexico after Villa. But the United States was deficient in many essentials for the successful prosecution of such an expedition, and, before these things could be improvised or supplied, Villa's forces had scattered into the mountains.

The American forces searched far and wide through the desert and mountains, and at first received some aid from the Carranza troops. A few bands of Villistas were overtaken and defeated. Villa was several times reported dead, and it appears that he was severely wounded in a skirmish. But he went into hiding and no trace of him could be found.

In course of time, the Mexican people became restive over the American occupation of part of their country. The Carranza government repeatedly requested that our troops should be withdrawn, and General Jacinto B. Trevino, one of Carranza's lieutenants, in June, issued a statement to the effect that he would attack American troops moving in any direction except toward the border. Matters became so critical that the American state militia were hastily called out and sent to the border.

Massacre at Carrizal

On the 21st of June, a company of American colored cavalry, under command of Captain Charles T. Boyd, became involved in a conflict with Carranza troops near Carrizal. The Americans were drawn into an ambuscade, and over forty were shot down

PURSUIT OF VILLA

by rifles or machine guns. Captain Boyd was himself among the slain. Captain Lewis Morey was severely wounded but managed to escape. A number of men were taken prisoners. The Mexican losses were also heavy.

It was generally expected that this incident would provoke open warfare between the two countries, but the Carranza authorities surrendered the prisoners, and no redress was demanded by the United States. Long and tiresome negotiations followed, and, meanwhile, the American expedition continued to remain in Mexico.

Capture of Chihuahua by Villa

After a period of eclipse, Villa once more appeared and was soon at the head of a formidable following. He captured Chihuahua and other towns, but the American troops made no further attempt to attack him.

In February, 1917, General Pershing's column was withdrawn across the border. The National Guards were gradually sent home.

Nothing had been settled, and the condition of affairs in Mexico continued uncertain. An American army officer who held high command on the border summed up the Mexican situation in the following words:

"Some people think of the Diaz régime in Mexico as the normal condition of affairs. In reality, it was an abnormal condition, and what we now see is the normal condition."

History bears out his diagnosis. In the century since it became independent, Mexico had witnessed over two hundred revolutions or attempted revolutions. It even saw two revolutions in the course of our own war with it—one by which General Santa Anna was restored to power, and the other by which he was again driven out after we captured Mexico City. Although there were many highly educated and cultured people in Mexico, the great mass of the people were ignorant peons in whom Indian blood predominated, and there was no real basis for self-government.

Death of General Funston

On the 22d of February, shortly after the withdrawal of our troops, the country was saddened by the sudden death, at San Antonio, Texas, of General Frederick Funston, who had been in command of our forces along the border. General Funston was born in Ohio in 1865, but much of his early life was spent in Kansas. He attended the University of Kansas for some years, engaged in newspaper work for a time, and traveled in the wilds of Alaska

AMERICAN TROOPS IN MEXICO

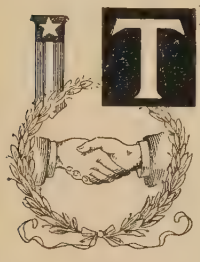
as a special agent of the Department of Agriculture. In 1896, he went to Cuba as a filibuster, distinguished himself, and rose to command of the artillery in the insurgent army to which he was attached. Wounds and sickness led to his return to the United States shortly before the outbreak of the Spanish War. He commanded a Kansas regiment in the Philippines, and performed many brave and warlike feats, the most notable being the capture of Aguinaldo, in reward for which he was made a brigadier in the regular army. He had command of the military forces at San Francisco at the time of the great earthquake, and he handled that situation with remarkable ability. Subsequently, he had command of the forces sent to Cuba to restore order and of the army that occupied Vera Cruz. Though not a West Pointer, he had mastered the art of war, was a natural-born fighter and leader, and was perhaps the ablest officer in the whole American army.

VILLA, ZAPATA, AND OTHER MEXICAN REBEL LEADERS

CHAPTER XI

REUNION OF THE BLUE AND THE GRAY

[*Author's Note:* The story told in this chapter is of such unique interest that it is deemed best not to adhere to a strict chronological order of events. History records no parallel of the Great Reunion, and the like can never again occur in our country. The lines of the Blue and of the Gray were rapidly thinning, and at no distant day the last feeble veteran would answer the final roll call, fold the draperies of his couch about him and lie down to pleasant dreams. Those whom they left behind would hold them in grateful remembrance and honor their memories through the coming generations.]



THE memorable battle of Gettysburg, which marked the turning point of the Civil War, occurred in the first days of July, 1863.

As early as May 13, 1909, the Pennsylvania Assembly created a commission to consider and arrange for a fitting observance of the half century anniversary of the mighty conflict, with authority to invite the co-operation of the nation, and of other states, and also of the Grand Army of the Republic, and the United Confederate Veterans. In June, 1910, under a concurrent resolution, Congress created a joint special committee on the fiftieth anniversary of the battle of Gettysburg.

The several general conferences decided that the celebration should be a great reunion at Gettysburg, Pa., of the veterans of the Civil War, from the North, South, East, and West, on July 1, 2, 3 and 4, 1913. For the entertainment of the guests Pennsylvania appropriated $40,000. She, and the national govern-

ment, as provided by act of Congress, agreed each to furnish $150,000 for the War Department, and with this $300,000 total to create and maintain a great camp around the battlefield, with all quartermaster, commissary, hospital and other necessary supplies, ample for the expected 40,000 veterans.

Magnitude of the Camp

The camp was to consist of 280 contiguous acres, with 5,000 tents, ordinarily holding twelve men each, but in the present instance to accommodate only eight. These were to be furnished with every convenience, and the meals were to be served at tables adjoining the kitchen at the end of each company street. Each veteran was to provide the necessary towels and toilet articles, and his belongings were limited to hand baggage only. To avoid congestion on the railways, the camp was to be opened in complete readiness for the reception of veterans on Sunday, June 29, the first meal being supper, and to remain open until the following Sunday, July 6, the last meal to be served on the latter date being breakfast.

For Veterans Only

The fact was emphasized that all this was to be done for veterans only, who were provided with transportation to and from Gettysburg. Every care was taken to insure the carrying out of these arrangements, and not the slightest hitch occurred. It was believed that the $300,000 named would be sufficient to pay all expenses involved, and such would have been the fact had it not been learned that the veterans would number at least 50,000. The Secretary of War notified Pennsylvania that she must assume the cost of the excess. The Pennsylvania legislature, on the last day of its session, June 23, 1913, unanimously appropriated $35,000 additional, thus guaranteeing full provision for the Great Reunion.

So impatient were the veterans from all parts of the country to take part in the Great Reunion that they did not await the official opening of the ceremonies on the first day of July. Although it was distinctly announced that accommodations would be provided only for the veterans, hundreds of their friends accompanied them and did the best they could in looking after themselves. The

Early Arrival of the Veterans

advance guard, as it may be called, began arriving three days ahead of schedule time, and all the members received a warm welcome.

It was hardly to be supposed that the veterans would need anything in the nature of protection, but those who had the matter in charge took no chances, nor did they neglect the slightest thing

that could add to the comfort and enjoyment of the visitors. A strong body of state constabulary were among the early arrivals, and they patrolled the streets and surrounding country with as alert vigilance as in any of the shopping districts of the North or South.

The grandest organization ever formed for youths is that of the Boy Scouts, which owes so much to Lieutenant-General Sir Robert S. S. Baden-Powell, of England. It is working out a stupendous revolution for good, and its divine fruitage will be gathered through all the years to come.

Boy Scouts

Gettysburg was the place of all others to display the noble principles of the Boy Scouts, and the Scouts did it in a way to win the admiration and gratitude of all. The youths in the khaki uniforms were bright, alert, present everywhere, helpful, resourceful, and never at a loss to know what to do to help the veterans, who often found themselves in need of the aid awaiting them. The boys were nimble, willing, cheerful, and instant to give assistance.

Officers of the regular army estimated that the number of arrivals on the last day of June was fifteen thousand, making the total nearly forty thousand veterans. The sun blazed with fierce fervor, and civilians more than soldiers gasped in the intolerable heat. After a time, however, a gentle breeze fluttered the tent flags and fanned the perspiring faces.

Arrival of Mrs. Longstreet

Among the arrivals were several thousand Confederates, who brought with them a snap and go that added liveliness to the gathering. Mrs. Helen D. Longstreet, widow of the famous general, had an enthusiastic welcome, and two tents were allotted to her.

One of the many splendid monuments marking the battlefield is the "High-Water Mark" and Roll Book on the scene of General Longstreet's memorable assault, and marking the highest point of the Confederate advance in the Civil War. This point was the center of an almost constant rendezvous during the reunion.

Distinguished Visitors

Although nobody was considered of much account unless he had fought in the great war, it is proper to mention a few other visitors. Four governors made their appearance—F. C. McGovern, of Wisconsin; John K. Tener, of Pennsylvania; William H. Mann, of Virginia; and James B. McCreary, of Kentucky, who was a major and lieutenant-colonel under Generals Morgan and Breckinridge in the Confederate army. This quartette was entitled to some consideration, as were the other governors who followed them.

"HIGH-WATER MARK" AND ROLL BOOK

The men from Virginia, including Pickett's seventy-three survivors, gave their governor a rousing welcome and passed in review before him under the Stars and Stripes, the Stars and Bars, and the Virginia State Flag.

General Sickles

General Sickles, the only veteran corps commander of the United States army on the field, sat on the porch of the Rogers House near where he was shot, and with glowing face and moistened eyes shook hands with the veterans who continually crowded around him. None were more ardent in their demonstrations of respect and affection than the Confederates who pressed his hand until it ached.

GENERAL DANIEL E. SICKLES

"You must go out on the field," said one grizzled warrior, "and have your picture taken with us."

"I'm afraid I'm hardly equal to the task, though I appreciate the compliment," he replied hesitatingly, with a longing look in his eyes.

"Shucks! We'll fix that."

And they did by shouldering and carrying him out to the battlefield where they stood him up before the camera and moving-picture machine.

Lives Saved by the Civil War

I repeat what I have said before, that although the Civil War cost a million human lives, it saved many thousands. Multitudes were living at the beginning of the twentieth century, who, but for that tremendous conflict, would have sunk into their graves a generation or more before. Pale clerks, wan students, and semi-invalids were transformed by their rough out-door living into husky young men, who, now, having passed their three-score and ten,

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

were still hale and rugged with the promise of indefinite years before them.

Interesting Statistics

The following statistics are from the official records of the War Department. They show that the Civil War was fought by armies made up of mere boys. This explains how it came about that, fifty years after the close of the bloody strife, so large and so stalwart an army of veterans could appear at this reunion. The table shows the ages of the soldiers at time of enrollment.

10 years and under	25
11 years and under	38
12 years and under	225
13 years and under	300
14 years and under	1,523
15 years and under	104,987
16 years and under	231,051
17 years and under	844,891
18 years and under	1,151,438
21 years and under	2,159,798
22 years and over	618,511
25 years and over	46,626

The veterans were so wrought up by the opening day, that hundreds of them sat up all the previous night, and, at the earliest streakings of dawn, scattered in groups, each ardently following the trail of his command in 1863. In this search it often happened that a Union squad ran against a Confederate one, and a brief exchange of words usually proved that they had fought directly against each other. A company of Confederates finally discovered the place where Pickett's men began their charge against Cemetery Ridge. When sure of the spot, their feelings had to find an outlet in another ringing "rebel yell".

The Strains of "Dixie"

"What in thunder is that?" demanded the startled Federals and the disturbed regulars, as they rubbed their eyes and drew aside their tent flaps. The strains of "Dixie" from far across the battlefield was the answer, and, as the tottering veterans drew near over the once crimsoned plain, the Boys in Blue gave them hearty cheers. Finally the old fellows straggled back to camp to gain a few hours sleep before the more stirring events of the day.

The Great Reunion was all that the name implies. It was a friendly mingling of over fifty thousand veterans of the Confederate and the Union armies, the renewal of acquaintances, the forming of new friendships, and the exchange of reminiscences of the far-away, stirring days, when those who now embraced in loving com-

CONFEDERATE MONUMENT AND CEMETERY, RICHMOND, VA.

radeship did their utmost to kill each other. Underneath it all as a bedrock lay the fervent devotion to the Union, which like a golden thread wove in and out of the warp that made up the truest loyalty to a reunited country. It was this phase of the gathering for which the participants cared more than for any other feature. The true heroes were the ones who had proved their bravery on the crimson battlefield, and they cared little for the governors, congressmen, and other distinguished citizens, who came from every quarter of the Union.

None the less, it was fitting that the proceedings should take on a formal character, and this was accomplished with good taste. Monday, the first of July therefore opened these exercises.

Formal Opening of the Reunion

They were held in the afternoon in the big circus tent. The weather was as sweltering as ever, and less than four thousand of the veterans came to the meeting. Secretary of War Lindley M. Garrison had arrived in camp early in the morning and received the regulation salute from a battery of the Third artillery, accompanied by cordial cheering, and followed by the rendition of the airs whose popularity can never die. "Rally Round the Flag" was duly applauded, but the enthusiasm awakened was hardly equal to that roused by "My Old Kentucky Home" and "Dixie". General James M. Schoonmaker presided and was given a welcome so fervent that his fine countenance flushed with pleasure. The exercises of Veterans' Day as it was called, were opened with prayer by George E. Lovejoy, chaplain-in-chief of the G. A. R., and Rev. H. M. Hamill, chaplain-general of the United Confederate Veterans, closed the meeting. The tasteful welcoming address was by Governor Tener; the main address by General Bennett H. Young, commander-in-chief of the United Confederate Veterans. General Young prefaced his speech by leading the Confederates present in giving the "rebel yell".

The National Cemetery

While the proceedings described were under way, the informal ones engaged the attention of probably nine-tenths of the veterans. The National Cemetery, with its 3,664 graves of the known and unknown dead, was the magnet that drew them thither. The Cemetery lies on a ridge, immediately back of the camp, and every headstone was decorated with crossed American and Pennsylvania flags, which in the distance turned the battle section into a waving field of carnations and forget-me-nots. All through the hot sun-

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

shine the survivors tramped to the Mecca in reverent pilgrimage. Scores of these men had risen at earliest dawn, and on canes and crutches tottered up hill there to search for the last resting-place of brothers and friends. Many neglected the noonday mess call, and did not turn their steps campward until night was closing over the striking scene.

In Memory of General Reynolds

All day long a group of veterans, slowly changing places, stood with uncovered heads around the statue of General Reynolds, killed in the first day's battle. Such modest flowers as had been plucked on the field were dropped at the base, and no eye was free of unwonted moisture when the old warriors turned away.

There were many strange experiences. John Carson, a Union veteran of Burlington, N. J., shook hands with John Carson, of Burlington, N. C., a Confederate veteran. These two men who did not receive a scratch during the battle were directly opposed to each other in the fighting.

The tents of the few survivors of the old Eleventh New Jersey stood on the spot where fifty years before nearly all the command were annihilated. So vivid were the memories of that awful day that some of the old men could not close their eyes in sleep.

H. M. Fitzgerald, of Chicago, strolled into the camp of the Twentieth North Carolina and said he was looking for some member of that regiment. One of the soldiers pushed forward, J. D. Irvin, of Virginia, with the statement that he was the color bearer of the Twentieth.

A Strange Coincidence

"The color bearer!" exclaimed the visitor; "that's better than I hoped for. I've got the other half of your flag which we took from you fifty years ago, and I wanted to return it to some member of your regiment, but hardly hoped to give it back to the very man I took it from."

The fact that the piece which the Twentieth carried away had twenty-seven bullet holes through it shows the kind of fighting the North Carolina men did on that crimson day.

Among the arrivals was Colonel John C. Clemm, known in history as "The Drummer Boy of Shiloh". He was ten years old when he beat the opening drum that helped inspire Company C of the Twenty-second Michigan regiment to its deeds of valor.

It was a curious sight presented on Seminary Ridge where a number of Confederate officers were dancing to the music of a

fiddle played by J. B. Boessinger, of Richfield, Va. He was a member of Company 45, North Carolina, and the extraordinary fact about him was that he had only one complete arm. Our illustration shows how he managed his instrument. He "rendered" the old tunes "The Arkansas Traveler", "Turkey in the Straw", "The

THE ONE-ARMED FIDDLER

Mississippi Sawyer", with such skill and vigor that it seemed impossible for his hearers to keep their feet still. More than once, a party of veterans coming from the train, dusty, worn and tired, would stop suddenly at the sound of the music, and dropping their suit cases in the middle of the road, make their heels fly, enlivening the fun at intervals by whoops and the old rebel yell. It is stated

The Charm of Music

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

that at one time, the musical wizard had three brigadier-generals dancing with the vim of half a century before. At night a number of Union soldiers strolled over to the Confederate camp and tried to shake a leg, but the Johnnies beat them every time.

Micajah Wise

The home of Micajah Wise was at Beaver Brook, Sullivan county, N. Y., and his fourth wife was seventy-eight years old. The records of the pension office show that he was born in 1805, but his family claim to have proof that he first saw the light, January 15, 1801, which made his age at the time of the Great Reunion, 112 years!

He put up a brave fight at the battle of Gettysburg as a member of the 141st Pennsylvania infantry. Naturally, he received a great deal of attention during the Reunion. Only the previous year he burst angrily into the office of a Scranton newspaper and offered to lick the editor for having printed his obituary notice.

Another remarkable veteran was Joseph R. Winter, known during the war as "Indian Jack". He was born in Leesburg, Va., August 29, 1816, a date which brought his age close to the century mark, and made him the oldest of all the Pennsylvania warriors. He had lived in Chambersburg since 1830, and was the author of the war song, "Ten Days After the Battle of Gettysburg". He served as John Brown's orderly in his Harper's Ferry raid, and it was in his arms that John Wanamaker, father of the merchant prince, died in 1859.

The First Shot at Gettysburg

Colonel W. H. Kugg, of the state of Washington, claims that he fired the first shot at Gettysburg. He was taken prisoner, and said he saw the inside of twenty-one Confederate prisons in the course of two years.

The second day was Military Day. The proceedings opened at one o'clock with music, and with Colonel Andrew Cowan, of Louisville, Ky., as presiding officer. No better choice could have been made. He possessed a distinguished presence, was mentally alert, a skilled parliamentarian and had a magnetic personality. His greatest recommendation was that he was a conspicuous hero of the battle and one of its noted artillerists. At the crisis of Pickett's charge, Cowan's battery galloped up to the "high-water mark" and poured double canister into the enemy at a distance of ten yards. Such credentials were the open sesame at Gettysburg to the esteem, admiration and affection of the participants in the Great Reunion.

Other speakers were Major-General John B. Brooke, of Penn-

sylvania; Sergeant John C. Scarborough, of North Carolina; and Lieutenant-Governor Burchard, of Rhode Island, speaking as representatives of the armies of the North and the South.

It will not be claimed that there were many colored Confederates

LEVI MILLER, ONLY COLORED CONFEDERATE

during the war for the Union. It was natural, therefore, that when the husky Levi Miller, of Kernstown, Virginia, put in an appearance at Gettysburg, he should receive marked attention. Indeed, he was treated so well by his white comrades, that he

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naively wrote me some weeks afterward, "I have not been feeling well since I came back," as if the reason therefor was not self-evident.

The Only Colored Confederate

Levi Miller was born in slavery, January 9, 1836, in Rockbridge county, Virginia, and had a slight strain of Indian blood in his veins. He lived in that section until the breaking out of the war. His natural gifts as an orator, and his religious temperament, caused him to be very successful in preaching among those of his own race. He was held in high respect by all who knew him, as a man whose life and practice were in accord with his profession.

Captain J. E. Anderson was the last captain of Company C, Fifth Texas regiment. Captain Anderson and his company arrived in Richmond in September, 1861, where Levi Miller was secured as a servant by Captain J. J. McBride, whose brother was the owner of the colored man. Levi was in all the fighting around Richmond in 1862. Captain McBride was wounded in the second battle of Bull Run, and Miller nursed him at the hospital until his recovery, which was in time for both to be in the Fredericksburg fight in December of that year, followed by the Suffolk campaign in the succeeding spring.

Levi entered Pennsylvania when Lee started for Gettysburg, and stayed with the invading army until the last man left the Keystone State. He was urged to desert, but he sturdily refused and remained an ardent Confederate to the end. He went with his company to Georgia, and was at the battle of Chickamauga and in the campaign against Chattanooga, as well as in all the operations during the bitterly cold winter of 1863-64 around Knoxville and in Eastern Tennessee.

From this point Captain Anderson's story is so graphic that I quote:

Captain Anderson's Story

"In the spring of 1864, we returned to Virginia and rejoined General Lee's army. At the battle of the Wilderness, when in a desperate emergency, General Lee insisted upon leading the Texas brigade in a charge, the men refused to permit him to do so, and seizing the reins of his horse, compelled him to go to the rear, unable to bear the sight of his being killed before their eyes. In the furious fighting which followed, Captain McBride had both legs broken and was believed to be mortally wounded. This was early in the morning of May 6, 1864.

"Levi Miller was at that time with the wagon trains and did not learn of the captain being wounded until he got to Spottsylvania Court House where we arrived early on May 8. On the morning of the tenth, Levi brought a haversack of rations. In order to reach me in our temporary ditch and breastworks, he had to cross an open field for two hundred yards. As he was running at his highest speed, the enemy's sharpshooters clipped the dirt all around him, but he came through untouched. I told him he must not attempt to go back until night, as the sharpshooters would be sure to get him. I directed him how to find the wounded captain, and as soon as it was dark he was to rejoin and nurse him until he died.

Levi Miller's Bravery

"At about two o'clock in the afternoon I saw from the maneuvers of the enemy in our front, that they were getting ready to charge us. I told Levi he would gain his chance during the fighting. He asked for a gun and ammunition, which were given him, as we had a number of extra weapons. At about four o'clock, a furious charge was made. Levi Miller stood by my side, and man never fought harder and better than he did when the enemy tried to cross our little breastworks. We clubbed and bayoneted them off, and no one used his bayonet with more skill and effect than he. During the fight my men encouraged him by shouting, 'Give them hell, Levi'.

"After the fight was over, one of my men proposed that Levi Miller should be enrolled as a full member of the company. I put the motion, and of course it was passed unanimously. I immediately enrolled him as a full member of the company, which roll I have yet in my possession. As soon as it was dark, Levi made his way to Captain McBride, who had been taken to a hospital at Charlottesville, Va. He faithfully nursed him until October, 1865, which was some time after the war closed. Captain McBride returned to Texas, where he died in 1880. He owed his life to Levi Miller's good nursing."

Last Day of the Reunion

Thursday, July 3, saw the climax of the Great Reunion. Officially it was Governors' Day. With Governor Tener presiding, a large assemblage gathered in the big tent at one o'clock. Among those present were the congressional delegation headed by Vice-President Marshall, Speaker Clark, Governor Sulzer, of New York, and others. All the speeches were excellent. Speaker Clark captured his audience and brought rousing cheers when he said: "The valor displayed in the war was not Northern valor; it was

PRESIDENT WOODROW WILSON AT GETTYSBURG REUNION

not Southern valor, but I thank the Almighty God, it was American valor. The greatest thing of all is to be an American citizen."

Governor James Cox, of Ohio, awoke an enthusiastic response by urging that the National Home at Johnson City, Tenn., should be turned over to the Confederates for refuge for those who had fought under their flag. He said:

Extract from Governor Cox's Address

"The two armies are now near the Great Divide, facing the sunset, waiting for the sun to go down. Silhouetted on the evening skies we see couriers arm in arm, the Blue and the Gray, entering the shadows. Let us give to them a message to Grant and Lee, Sheridan and Jackson—to their comrades beyond the skies—a message that both armies have won the greatest victory, and that one flag shelters a reunited republic."

Fifty years! What history is spanned by that long stretch of time! Within that period twelve Presidents had sat in the chair at Washington; twelve states had been added to the Union; the population had tripled and the wealth, prosperity and progress of the United States had placed it in the foremost rank among the world's nations.

The culmination of the Great Reunion was on July 3, which was the anniversary of Pickett's charge. Many of the old soldiers left for their distant homes, relieved to get away from the frightful heat, but saddened to exchange good-bys with their old comrades, realizing that the partings were eternal so far as this world is concerned.

Arrival of President Wilson

But the anniversary of American Independence could not be forgotten nor neglected on this historic field. The occasion gave it unusual impressiveness, and it was notable because of the presence of the President of the United States. He arrived in his private car over the Western Maryland road from Washington, a minute or two after eleven. As he alighted from the train, a battery of field artillery from Fort Meyer, Va., stationed at the Pennsylvania College on Seminary Ridge, fired the national salute of twenty-one guns. He was met by Colonel Schoonmaker, who conducted him to the tent two miles away in an automobile.

President Wilson was the first President since Lincoln to visit Gettysburg. He came for the special purpose of addressing the veterans, and was the first President to do so in his official capacity. He was warmly welcomed when he reached the tent, to which he was escorted by all the army representatives there—the first bat-

THE ETERNAL BIVOUAC

talion of the Fifteenth cavalry from Fort Meyer, and the battalion of the Fifth infantry from Plattsburg barracks, New York. He was received by Assistant Secretary of War Breckinridge, representing the War Department in charge of the camp, and was introduced to the audience by Governor Tener, acting for the state of Pennsylvania as host to the veterans. His speech was eloquent and in excellent taste, as may in truth be said of all his addresses. PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Just as the fiery sun reached meridian a silver-tongued bugle announced that noon had arrived. The flag before the headquarters of General Liggett sank slowly half-way down the shaft in front of his tent, where stood the officer, his shoulders squared, his face toward the flag and his attitude at attention. Then from somewhere the battery guns of the Third battery boomed their salute.

Every officer over the length and breadth of the whole field, and every enlisted man turned from his duties for the moment and faced the flag, heels together, head up and eyes grave and attentive. Tribute to the Dead

For five minutes the solemn hush lasted. It was the tribute of the regular army to the thousands of the heroes who lay asleep around them, and who shall not awaken until the resurrection morn.

Once more the bugle sounded, but this time the tone was more joyous. The silken flag leaped up the staff to the pinnacle, the hum and throb and murmur of forty thousand men was heard again and life resumed its wonted sway.

On September 29, 1915, the forty-ninth annual encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic reached its climax in Washington when 20,000 veterans marched over the route they had tramped fifty years before the preceding May. They went from the Capitol grounds up Pennsylvania avenue, past the White House, where they were received by President Wilson. G. A. R. Encampment

It was a pathetic and thrilling picture. Absent were the bright eyes, the elastic step, the erect bounding forms, and the pulsing youth that made that sight of the spring of '65 one of the grandest and most stirring upon which the sparkling gaze of an American patriot could rest. In their places were bowed and tottering figures, some in the tattered uniforms of half a century before, but the heart of every one was as warm and glowing and overflowing with love of his country, as when with ringing shout, he leaped into battle behind the Star-Spangled Banner.

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Gone were Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, Farragut, and the host of leaders, and the multitude of the rank and file, though their memory will ever live in the hearts of their grateful countrymen.

Parade of the Veterans

President Wilson stood for nearly four hours on the same spot that President Andrew Johnson occupied at the grand review of Civil War troops on May 24 and 25, 1865. By President Wilson's side in the reviewing stand were Lieutenant-General Nelson A. Miles, and Commander-in-Chief David A. Palmer, of the Grand Army of the Republic. Among those present were the members of the Cabinet. Chief Justice White, who served in the Confederate army, was one of the most enthusiastic spectators and was frequently cheered.

Although there were many distinguished men in the ranks, it was an impressive fact that there was not a man in the parade who had commanded an army in the Civil War. Only two such persons were alive—General Greenville M. Dodge and General James H. Wilson. Neither was able to be present at the encampment.

Feature of the Parade

A feature of the parade was the great flag, more than 150 feet long, borne by McKinley Post, of Canton, Ohio. More than seventy-five bands and drum corps marched in the parade, besides a special drum corps of 100 Washington boys, grandsons or great grandsons of veterans.

Reverend Dr. Thomas Y. Christie came all the way from Tarsus, Asia Minor, where he had had charge of Congregational missions for forty years, in order to appear in the parade. The oldest G. A. R. member in attendance was William LeDuc, of Minnesota, 95 years old. Several others were only a few years younger.

This parade foreshadowed the final passing of this dwindling army of heroes. Never again could their number equal that of September, 1915.

"On Fame's eternal camping ground
Their silent tents are spread;
And Glory guards with solemn round
The bivouac of the dead."

CHAPTER XII

THE EUROPEAN WAR CLOUD

[*Author's Note:* The United States is now brought face to face with new and unprecedented responsibilities and problems. The serious friction with Mexico had interrupted the orderly program of domestic reforms in which the administration was engaged, and compelled unwonted attention to military matters. And now the turbulent waves from the storm center of the great European war are beating upon our shores with such ominous force that practically the whole attention of President Wilson, Congress, and the entire country, become absorbed in diplomatic activities, and military preparations. The United States is compelled to abandon her rôle of semi-isolation among the nations, and to take her place upon the stage as one of the Great Powers of the world. For this period there is a vast volume of current literature.]

THE Mexican situation was trying enough, but far more serious in possibilities were developments arising out of the Great War in Europe. At the outbreak of that stupendous conflict President Wilson declared American neutrality, and warned his countrymen against "that deepest, most subtle, and most essential breach of neutrality which may spring out of partisanship".

It was impossible, however, for millions of Americans to refrain from sympathizing with one side or the other in the conflict. Many citizens of Teutonic origin were outspoken for the Central Powers, while a much larger number of other classes of citizens, believing that Austria and Germany were responsible for the war, and, angered by the German invasion of Belgium—a country Germany was bound by treaty to protect—made no secret of their belief that the cause of civilization demanded an Allied victory. The number who

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took this view was constantly increased by the ruthless character of the warfare conducted by the Central Powers, by the killing of women and children in Zeppelin raids, and by the massacre of hun-

ROBERT LANSING, SECRETARY OF STATE

dreds of thousands of Christian Armenians by the barbarous Turks.

The concrete effects of the war were first felt in America in economic forms. Business was already dull, and the sudden outbreak of so titanic a conflict precipitated a situation that threatened to

overwhelm our whole economic system. Our foreign trade fell off, gold began to flow abroad in vast quantities, money grew so scarce that resort had to be made to clearing-house and other emergency certificates, the volume of business contracted, and hundreds of thousands of workingmen were thrown out of employment.

Effects of the War on Business

Apprehensions of economic disaster were so great that stock exchanges were closed for several months, while business was largely paralyzed. It was feared that European holders of American securities would proceed to dump their holdings on the market at ruinous prices and that this proceeding would not only tend to drain the country of gold but would demoralize American values. It turned out, however, that European investors displayed a tendency to keep such securities, and it was not until we had acquired a superabundance of gold that such securities began to be sold in this country in large quantities. Ultimately, France and Great Britain pledged immense amounts of such securities to safeguard American subscribers to their war loans.

A shortage of ships for the carrying trade was quickly felt. President Wilson urged upon Congress the creation of a ten million dollar corporation in which the government should hold fifty-one per cent of the stock, to buy and operate merchant ships in overseas trade. The proposal at first failed, but finally, in 1916, was adopted in modified form.

For many months the effects of the war on American business continued to be bad, but, ultimately, the demands of the Allied nations for American goods, and particularly for munitions of war, gave industry such an impetus that, by the beginning of 1916, the country was busier and more prosperous than for many years. The value of exports far surpassed anything ever before known, and the excess value of exports over imports in some months was over two hundred million dollars. In settlement of our favorable balance of trade the Allied nations found it necessary to send hither immense quantities of gold, and presently, instead of a dearth of the yellow metal such as had been feared, the country was flooded with it to such an extent that it became a menace to sound financial conditions. Partly to avoid a further influx of gold, American financiers arranged repeated loans to the Allied Powers. From being a debtor nation the United States became a creditor nation,

Great Influx of Gold

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and the world's financial center was transferred from Lombard Street to Wall Street.

At the outset, the probability of the United States becoming involved in the war appeared exceedingly remote, and there would

WILLIAM G. McADOO, SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY

Preparedness Urged

never have been any danger of our becoming involved if we had been willing to look facts in the face. But most Americans forgot that, notwithstanding the boasted brotherhood of man, the only real law in international affairs is the sword. One section of the people

became so engrossed in the mad pursuit of gold and another section in the pursuit of admirable but Utopian ideals that the country neglected to heed the voice of prudence and prepare to make its rights respected. Early in the war, experienced men like ex-President Roosevelt strongly urged large increases in our army and navy, but President Wilson and the party in power put the suggestions aside.

From the beginning of the war, both sides in Europe were guilty of infractions of neutral rights, and it would have been well if the great and powerful United States had protested vigorously and decisively at the outset. We did not, and the warring nations, encouraged by our silence, swept on from one violation to another.

The overwhelming naval strength of the Entente Allies enabled them quickly to sweep off the high seas the warships and merchant ships of the Central Powers and to destroy the commerce of these latter powers with the outside world. In an effort to make headway against their enemies on the water the Germans, in the first few days of the war, began the practice of laying mines in the North Sea, and though this practice was a violation of international law, the British were forced to follow their example.

Violation of International Law

Another means by which the Germans endeavored to make up for their weakness in warships was the submarine. At first they made use of these new engines of destruction chiefly against the armed forces of their enemies, but their success in this respect was only moderate and could not be decisive. Meanwhile, the pressure of the Allied blockade was being severely felt in Germany, and, early in 1915, the Germans determined upon a ruthless warfare at sea. On the 4th of February, the German Admiralty, alleging by way of excuse that the British government had declared food contraband of war, announced that from the 18th of February, all waters around the British Isles would be treated as within the "zone of war", and that "all enemy merchant vessels encountered in these waters will be destroyed, even if it will not always be possible to save their crews and passengers". Neutral vessels were also warned that they would be in great danger if they entered the zone.

Ruthless Submarine Warfare

On the 10th of February, the American government warned Germany that such a course would be contrary to well-established principles of international law and declared that if American ships should be sunk or American lives lost in pursuance thereof, the

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German government would be held to "a strict accountability". Germany, however, deliberately disregarded the warning, and in a reply to the United States disclaimed "responsibility for any unfortunate accidents that might occur".

NEWTON D. BAKER, SECRETARY OF WAR

Vessels Sunk by Submarines

On the day set, the Germans began their ruthless submarine warfare, and, in the course of a few weeks, sank a great number of the ships of their enemies and of neutral states as well. In some instances warning was given such vessels, and passengers and crews were allowed to escape in small boats; in others, the vessels

were sunk without warning. In these sinkings a great number of persons lost their lives. Late in March, an American citizen, Leon C. Thrasher, was drowned in the torpedoing of the British passenger steamer *Falaba*, along with more than

JOSEPHUS DANIELS, SECRETARY OF THE NAVY

a hundred other persons. On the 1st of May, the American steamer *Gulflight*, on her way to France with a cargo of oil, was torpedoed without warning, and two of her crew drowned, while the captain died soon after of heart failure. Other incidents, more or less grave, had already occurred, but the worst was to come.

American Steamer Torpedoed

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On the same day that the *Gulflight* was attacked, the great British passenger liner *Lusitania*, one of the finest ships afloat, sailed from New York. Prior to her departure advertisements of warning, inserted by the German embassy at Washington, had appeared in various newspapers, but these warnings were not taken seriously by intending passengers. Americans who engaged passage on the ship relied upon the strong arm of their government which in the past had always been raised to protect American citizens in their legitimate rights. The passengers and crew numbered 1,959 souls.

The Lusitania Horror

The voyage was prosperous and uneventful until the great vessel arrived off the Old Head of Kinsale, on the southeast coast of Ireland, when, about two o'clock in the afternoon of May 8, without the slightest warning, she was struck by two torpedoes coming in quick succession.

The vessel at once listed heavily to starboard, and this list, combined with her speed, rendered it difficult to launch the boats. The officers and crew did all that men could do, and the good old Anglo-Saxon cry of "women and children first" was raised and heeded, but no human power could counteract the effect of the cowardly attack. In less than twenty minutes, the great ship went to the bottom, and in the disaster 1,198 persons lost their lives. Included in the number were 286 women, and 94 children, 35 of the latter being babes in arms. Of the total number 114 were American citizens, among them being Justus Miles Forman, Elbert Hubbard, Charles Klein, Charles Frohman, and Alfred G. Vanderbilt. "Save the kiddies!" said Mr. Vanderbilt in the last tragic moments; while Mr. Frohman, a philosopher to the last, said: "Why fear death? It is the most beautiful of all adventures."

The German government hastened to instruct its Ambassador at Washington to convey to the American government, "its deepest sympathy at the loss of lives on board the *Lusitania*. The responsibility rests, however, with the British government, which, through its plan of starving the civilian population of Germany, has forced Germany to resort to retaliatory measures."

American Protest

Red-blooded Americans demanded vigorous measures to exact satisfaction for the destruction of American lives and to prevent the recurrence of such happenings in the future. Ex-President Roosevelt asked for action, and denounced the sinking of the *Lusi-*

tania as "not merely piracy, but piracy on a vaster scale of murder than old-time pirates ever practiced".

President Wilson considered the matter with great deliberation. In a speech at Philadelphia, three days after the sinking of the *Lusitania*, he said:

"Too Proud to Fight"

"There is such a thing as a man being too proud to fight. There is such a thing as a nation being so right that it does not need to convince others by force that it is right."

THE "LUSITANIA"

The note which was presently sent to Germany bore date of May 13. It was not an ultimatum, as many people had expected. It remonstrated with the German government over its course, emphasized the good relations hitherto existing between the two countries, again set forth the rights of American citizens, and closed by saying that "the Imperial German government will not expect the government of the United States to omit any word or any act necessary to the performance of its sacred duty of maintaining the rights of the United States and its citizens, and of safeguarding their free exercise and enjoyment".

Germany Disclaims Responsibility

The German government took its time about replying, and it was not until the 28th of May that it finally transmitted an answer, the general tenor of which was to disclaim all responsibility.

MINE AND BOMB DEPOT

It was now expected that the United States would deliver an ultimatum, and this expectation was heightened by the sudden resignation of Mr. Bryan as Secretary of State. In his letter of resignation, addressed to the President, he stated that to remain in the Cabinet "would be unfair to you as it would be to the cause which is nearest my heart; namely, the prevention of war". Mr. Bryan's resignation was hailed in some quarters with much satisfaction, and it was hinted that pique over the fact that President Wilson had virtually taken the conduct of international affairs into his own hands had something to do with his going. Bryan's place was at once filled by Robert Lansing, who was already Counselor for the Department of State.

Resignation of Secretary Bryan

When the second American note, dated June 8, was given to the public, it proved much less radical than had been anticipated. It was not an ultimatum, and did little more than reiterate the American position.

Meanwhile, the German submarine warfare against merchant vessels continued. On the 25th of May, the American steamer *Nebraskan* was torpedoed without warning in the ocean forty-five miles south of the coast of Ireland, but fortunately it did not sink.

On the 8th of July, the German government replied to the second American note and continued to argue the question and to make unacceptable suggestions. The United States responded in a note in which our Secretary of State declared that a repetition of such acts as had been complained of would be regarded as "deliberately unfriendly". This phrase in diplomacy has a special meaning, and connotes an act that would lead to war.

The Munition Business

American relations with the Teutonic Powers had, meantime, been complicated by other issues. The furnishing of munitions of war to the Entente Allies had by this time attained great proportions. The business was fully sanctioned by international law, and if, prior to the war, a traveler in Germany had asked Germans of what manufactory in Germany they were proudest, a large majority would have answered "Krupps"—the great arms firm that had sold guns and ammunition to one or both belligerents in practically every important conflict in the last half century. Many American firms would cheerfully have sold munitions to the Teutonic Powers had the thing been possible, but these nations were cut off by the blockade from such trade, and Austria, perhaps following

FIELD ARTILLERY PRACTICE—TRAINING CAMP

out a German suggestion, protested that the volume of such business threatened to endanger American neutrality. Of course, the protest was not heeded.

More reprehensible methods were taken to prevent the sale of such munitions. Teutonic agents and sympathizers repeatedly placed bombs on vessels or in munitions factories, and the resulting explosions not only destroyed much property but also caused loss of life. In July, 1915, a crack-brained man of German blood, one Erich Muenter, who had disappeared some years before under a charge of wife murder, placed a time bomb in a room of the Capitol at Washington, and the explosion did considerable damage. The same man shot and severely wounded J. P. Morgan, fiscal agent for the Allies, but was overpowered, and committed suicide in jail.

Dismissal of Dumba

It was discovered that Dr. Constantin Dumba, the Austro-Hungarian Ambassador, had been implicated in attempts to stir up strikes in American factories, and had made use of an American citizen bearing an American passport to carry dispatches to his government. His recall was demanded and he left the country. Toward the end of the year, President Wilson also demanded and obtained the recall of the German naval and military attachés, Captains Boy-Ed and Von Papen, for offenses the exact nature of which was not revealed.

In August, the British liner *Arabic* was sent to the bottom by a German submarine, and two Americans lost their lives. Finally, in October, the German Ambassador, Count von Bernstorff, disavowed this act and promised indemnity for the deaths of the two Americans. He also stated that "Liners will not be sunk by our submarines without warning and without safety of the lives of non-combatants, provided that the liners do not try to escape or offer resistance." No settlement of the *Lusitania* outrage, however, was made, nor did our government take any steps to exact "strict accountability".

German Concession

It was not long until an Austrian submarine sunk an Italian liner, the *Ancona*, causing the loss of American lives. The United States demanded disavowal of the act, punishment of the commander of the submarine, and an indemnity. The Austro-Hungarian government at first refused satisfaction, but ultimately promised to comply with American demands. Later revelations

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seem to show that the sinking was really done by a German submarine masquerading as an Austrian vessel.

Hardly had Austria returned this answer before a British passenger vessel, the *Persia*, was sunk and two Americans, one the American consul to Aden, were drowned. Both Germany and Austria denied responsibility for the act.

During all this time, the Entente Allies also, in the opinion of the Washington administration, were guilty of some infringements on neutral rights, and repeated protests were sent to them. Our protests to them were not, however, so drastic as those to the Central Powers, as their offenses concerned only American property while those of the Teutonic Powers involved both property and lives.

Campaign for Preparedness

Meanwhile Americans were beginning to realize that we were not properly prepared to enforce our rights against nations who scorned any argument except might. Millions of people who disliked "militarism" began to urge "preparedness", while pacifists, headed by Mr. Bryan and others, opposed it. President Wilson had by this time awakened to our defenseless state, and made the subject of preparedness the main feature of his annual message. He also made a speaking tour through part of the country to arouse public sentiment in favor of legislation in this direction.

Ultimately, considerable increases in the army and navy were authorized by Congress, and steps were taken to put the National Guard under Federal control. Many critics declared that the measures adopted were inadequate, and a year's trial seemed to bear out their contention. In February, 1916, Secretary of War Garrison resigned because the President refused to support the Secretary's plans for strengthening the military arm. He was succeeded by Newton D. Baker, ex-mayor of Cleveland.

In the same month, the German government announced that it would sink without warning all armed enemy merchant vessels, and our government protested. In April, a German submarine torpedoed without warning an unarmed British passenger boat named

The Case of the "Sussex"

the *Sussex* in the English Channel, killing many persons and wounding several Americans. The United States thereupon declared that it would "sever diplomatic relations" with Germany unless Germany "should now immediately declare and effect an abandonment of its present methods of submarine warfare against passenger and freight-carrying vessels".

On the 4th of May, in a somewhat vague reply, Germany, though not making the exact promise demanded, expressed a purpose to observe "the general principles of visit and search". It added, however, that the concession might be withdrawn in case its enemies did not abandon certain practices of which it complained. Our government made a reply in which it assumed complete acceptance of our demand.

A Supposed Victory

The outcome was hailed in some quarters as a glorious and bloodless diplomatic victory. Some Americans, however, were frankly skeptical, while others decided to wait and see the outcome.

About this time, the presidential campaign began. Both the Republican and the Progressive conventions met in Chicago on the 7th of June, the hope being that they could agree on a fusion ticket. The only man the Progressives were willing to consider for first place was Theodore Roosevelt, who stood for "preparedness" and the protection of American rights. Among the men chiefly considered by the Republican delegates were Justice Charles E. Hughes of New York, Elihu Root of New York, Theodore E. Burton of Ohio, John W. Weeks of Massachusetts, and Theodore Roosevelt. The Progressive leaders endeavored to force the Republicans to nominate Roosevelt, and he received nearly a hundred votes in the convention, but Hughes was nominated on the first ballot. For the vice-presidency the Republicans named Charles W. Fairbanks of Indiana.

The Progressives then nominated Roosevelt for President, and John M. Parker of Louisiana for Vice-President. Ultimately Roosevelt declined to make the race and declared in favor of Hughes, but Parker accepted the nomination. The Progressive party virtually disappeared.

Nomination of Hughes

Charles E. Hughes, the Republican nominee for first place, was born at Glens Falls, New York, April 11, 1862. He graduated from Brown University in 1881 and from the Columbia University law school in 1884. He was for a time professor of law at Cornell University and for years practiced law in New York City. He first came prominently before the public as counsel in the great investigation of life insurance companies and helped to uncover some grave scandals in the management of such companies. In 1906, he was elected governor, and, two years later, was reëlected. As governor he displayed much ability and forcefulness and made

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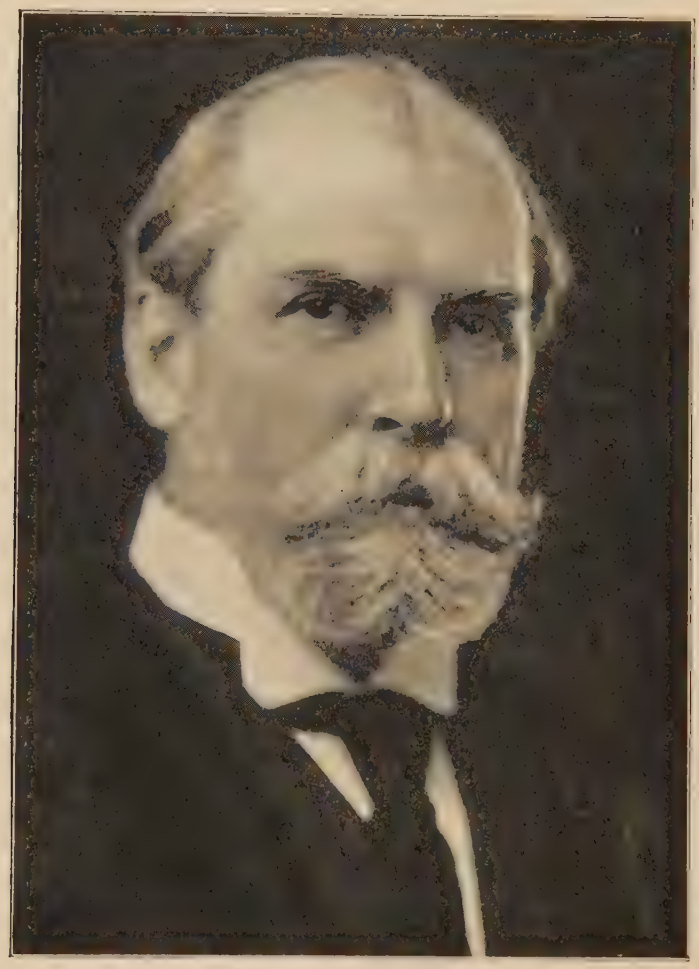
himself odious to the political bosses, whose nefarious schemes he frustrated. In October, 1910, he resigned the governorship to accept a seat on the bench of the supreme court of the United States.

The Democratic National Convention met at St. Louis on the



EX-JUSTICE CHARLES E. HUGHES

Wilson Renominated

14th of June. Woodrow Wilson and Thomas R. Marshall were renominated without opposition, and a platform was adopted praising Democratic management of national affairs.

In the campaign that followed the Democrats pointed to the prosperity of the country and made much of the fact that President

Wilson had "kept us out of war". The Republicans contended that our prosperity would disappear as soon as peace was restored, and many of their orators denounced our foreign policy in Europe and Mexico as weak and pusillanimous, and held that it would tend to involve us in war.

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A Close Election

The election proved to be the closest since that of 1884. Early returns seemed to indicate that Justice Hughes had been elected by a large majority in the Electoral College. He had, in fact, carried such pivotal states as New York and Indiana, together with almost all of the Northern states east of the Mississippi river. But Wilson had carried all the Southern states and most of the Western states, together with New Hampshire and Ohio. The result finally hinged on the outcome in California. The official count showed that Wilson had carried the state by a plurality of 3,773 votes and that he was elected. He received 276 electoral votes to 255 for Hughes, and he also obtained a large plurality of the total popular vote.

The Democrats also retained control of the Senate, but the result as regards the House of Representatives was so close that it was doubtful which party would be able to organize that body and elect the Speaker.

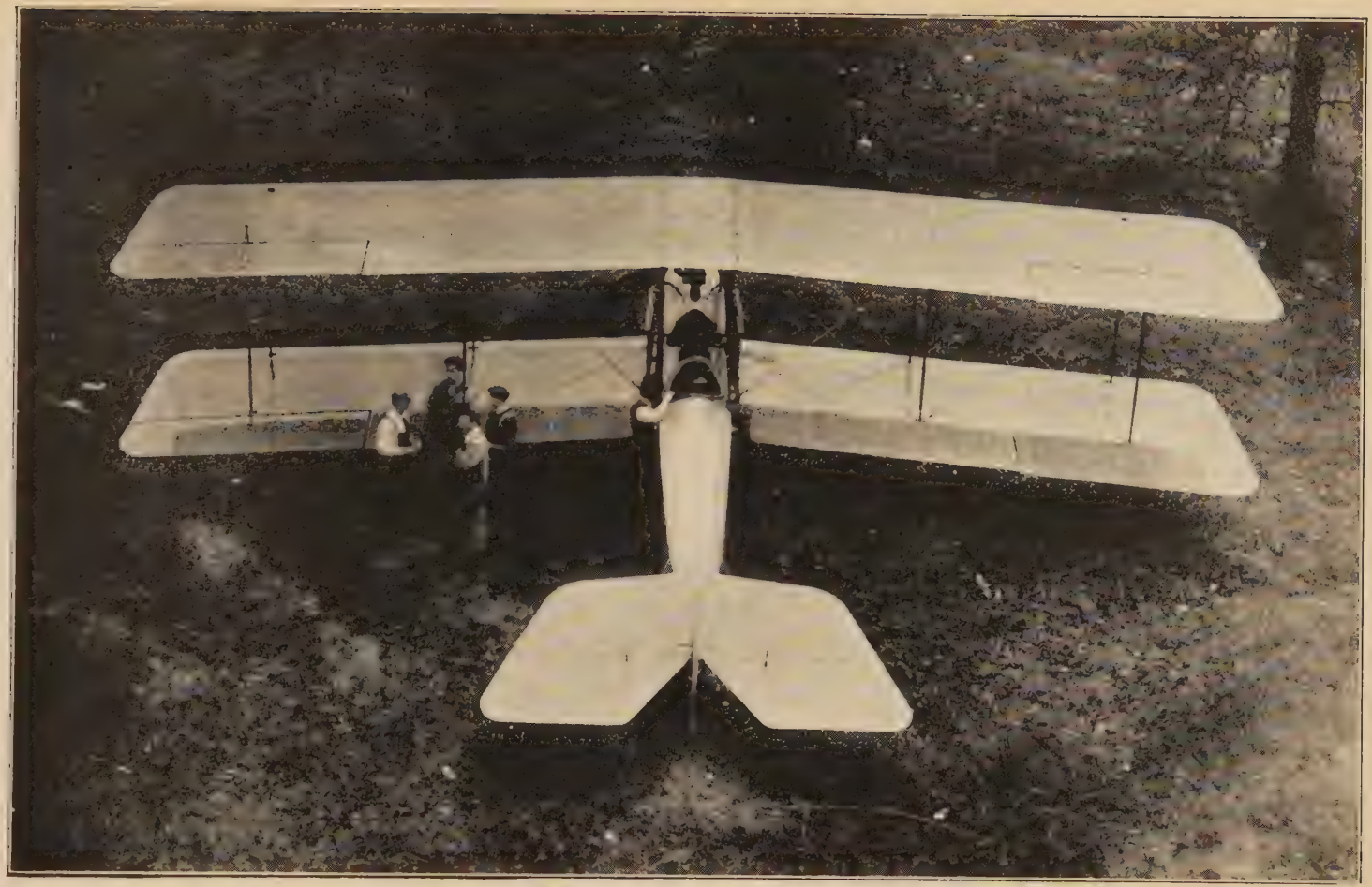
Railway Eight-Hour Law

In the midst of the campaign, a great railway strike impended and threatened to paralyze the business of the country. President Wilson urged legislation to prevent the strike, and, early in September, Congress passed what became known as the Adamson Eight-Hour Law, which was favorable to the railway workers. The law averted a strike, but it was bitterly opposed by the railroads, and the question of its constitutionality was carried before the Federal supreme court.

In the course of the summer and fall, German submarines repeatedly violated the pledge exacted after the sinking of the *Essex*, and there were several instances in which Americans were unlawfully killed or their property destroyed.

German Peace Proposal

On the 12th of December, Germany startled the world by transmitting to neutral powers a statement of her willingness for peace. In vainglorious terms she announced that she had defeated her enemies, proposed to enter forthwith into peace negotiations, alluded to proposals she would make as "an appropriate basis for a lasting peace", and declared that responsibility for further bloodshed



UNITED STATES ARMY AEROPLANE

would fall on her enemies. Germany's allies transmitted similar notes.

In the Allied countries the proposal was stigmatized as "insincere" and as a "war maneuver", while one British statesman demanded whether all the wrongs committed by Germany could be "liquidated by a few pious phrases about humanity". In neutral circles there was some inclination to take the offer at its face value, but many critics thought that the step was intended for effect at home, or to confuse neutral opinion and cause it to condone some new step in ruthlessness.

It was also said that Germany realized that her position was more favorable than it could ever be again, that her people were weary of the war, and that she was anxious to end the conflict before the Allies could bring their real strength to bear against her.

Wilson Asks the Belligerents to State Their Terms

On the 18th of December, President Wilson sent a note to all the belligerents in which he suggested that they make "an avowal of their respective views as to terms upon which the war might be concluded and the arrangements which would be deemed satisfactory as a guaranty against its renewal".

This note, coming after the German proposal, created great excitement in financial circles, and the excitement was heightened by a statement by Secretary of State Lansing to the effect that the step had been taken because the United States was being drawn to the verge of war. A second statement by him partially contradicted the first, but the effect remained. Values of stocks shrunk greatly in a few hours, and the general financial situation of the country was threatened. Through the dishonesty of two newspaper reporters, certain interests obtained news of the note in advance and were able to make millions. Wild stories about this "leak" brought about a congressional investigation whereby some of the true facts were obtained.

Germany Sends an Evasive Reply

On December 26th, Germany and her allies made a very polite and brief reply in which they failed to respond to the suggestion as to terms and proposed an immediate peace conference. The Entente Powers took more time to their reply; on the 11th of January, they announced a number of specific objects but expressed the opinion that it was impossible "at the present moment to obtain peace which will insure the Allies reparation, restitution, and the guarantees to which they are entitled".

On the 22d of January, President Wilson appeared before the

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Senate and delivered a homily on world peace and the methods by which it could be obtained and preserved. His speech attracted much attention, but discussion of it was soon cut short by a new act on the part of Germany.

JOHANN HEINRICH VON BERNSTORFF
German Ambassador to United States

Germany Hoists the Black Flag

On the 31st of January, without any previous warning, Germany suddenly announced her intention to wage unrestricted submarine warfare in a great zone surrounding the British Isles and the western coast of France and in another zone embracing most of the Med-

iterranean Sea. All ships entering either of these zones were to be ruthlessly sunk, no matter what their ownership, cargo, port of departure, or destination. As a special concession, the United States was to be permitted to send one ship a week to the port of Falmouth but must guarantee that she carried no contraband of war. The work of destruction was to begin the next day.

There were many Americans cowardly and degenerate enough to advocate that we should supinely accept these restrictions imposed by the German warlords, but the President and the great body of patriotic Americans thought otherwise. In accordance with his solemn warning after the sinking of the *Sussex*, President Wilson directed that Count von Bernstorff be given his passports and that Ambassador Gerard and all other American representatives in Germany be summoned home.

Diplomatic Relations Broken

The same day, he appeared before Congress and stated what had been done and said that it might become necessary for him to appear before that body again to ask for power to protect American rights on the high seas.

The President also asked all neutral countries to follow the example America had set.

Germany persevered in her course and not only sank ships belonging to the Allies but also many belonging to such countries as Spain, Holland, Sweden, and Norway. At the same time, she was careful to attempt to intimidate these powers from accepting President Wilson's invitation. Various nations protested against the new warfare, but, up to the 4th of March, none had ventured to break off relations.

More German Outrages

In Germany Ambassador Gerard was kept virtually a prisoner for several days, and an effort was made to frighten him into signing certain papers that would have been favorable to Germany. At the same time, nearly a hundred American seamen who had been taken off ships sunk by a German raider in the Atlantic were kept prisoners in Germany.

In the course of the first three weeks in February, several violations of American rights occurred through the operations of submarines, but none that President Wilson chose to consider an "overt act". Meanwhile, many American vessels remained in our ports and refused to undertake voyages until the government would protect them.

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On the 26th of February, six days before the end of the session, President Wilson appeared before Congress and stated that he wished the United States to assume a position of "armed neutrality". He expressed a belief that he already had power to arm our mer-

JAMES W. GERARD
United States Ambassador to Germany

"Armed Neutrality"

chant vessels but stated a wish that Congress would expressly authorize him to do so and thus stand back of his action. He also requested that he be clothed with general powers to meet the situation.

About the time that he was speaking, word arrived in Washing-

ton that the night before a German submarine had sunk without warning the British passenger steamer *Laconia*, causing great loss of life. By this deed three Americans were done to death: one a veteran of our Civil War, a man who had fought to protect the Stars and Stripes, to save the Union, and free the slaves; the others Mrs. Hoy and her daughter, of Chicago. Indignation over the affair was heightened by the receipt by President Wilson of an eloquent cablegram from a son of the murdered Mrs. Hoy. It ran as follows:

More Americans Murdered

"I am an American citizen * * * living abroad not as an expatriate, but for the promotion of American trade. I love the flag, believing in its significance. My beloved mother and sister, passengers on the *Laconia*, have been foully murdered on the high seas.

"As an American citizen outraged, and as such fully within my rights, and as an American son and brother bereaved, I call upon my government to preserve its citizens' self-respect and save others of my countrymen from such deep grief as I now feel.

"I am of military age, able to fight. If my country can use me against these brutal assassins, I am at its call. If it stultifies my manhood and my nation's by remaining passive under outrage, I shall seek a man's chance under another flag."

German Overtures to Mexico

On the 1st of March, there was published in newspapers throughout the United States a dispatch from Zimmerman, the German Minister of Foreign Affairs, to the German Minister in Mexico notifying him of the intention to begin unrestricted submarine warfare and instructing him that in case the United States entered the war, he should stir up the Carranza government to attack the United States. Germany promised financial support and suggested that Mexico should reconquer Texas, Arizona, and New Mexico. This would seem to be a sufficiently big task for Mexico, but she was further to mediate between Japan and Germany and persuade Japan to make peace with Germany and attack the United States.

The dispatch was dated at Berlin on the 19th of January, and it had passed through the hands of Von Bernstorff before he left Washington. A resolution of inquiry passed by the Senate brought from President Wilson and Secretary Lansing statements to the effect that the dispatch was authentic but that it was not in the public interest that the manner in which it was obtained should be made public.

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Some defenders of Germany affected to believe that the dispatch had been forged by an agent of the Allies, but Zimmerman, its author, admitted having transmitted it.

Notwithstanding all these disclosures, Congress came to an end before a bill could be passed granting the President the powers he asked. Such a measure passed the House by a vote of 403 to 13, but in the Senate about a dozen senators, headed by Stone of Missouri and LaFollette of Wisconsin, began a filibuster against it. More than three-fourths of the senators signed a formal statement that they would have voted for the measure if they could, but as there was no cloture on debate in the Senate, the filibusters succeeded in preventing a vote before Congress expired. Much other needed legislation also was killed, thus rendering imperative an early extra session. The action of the obstructionists was denounced in all parts of the country as being "not far removed from treason".

Senatorial Filibuster

Meanwhile, by paying the sum of $25,000,000, the United States had purchased from Denmark the Danish West Indies. Twice before, in 1865–67 and 1902, treaties of cession had been negotiated, but, in the first instance, the effort came to nothing because of the attitude of the American Senate, while, in the second instance, the Danish upper house, partly as a result of German influence, rejected the treaty. The islands lie to the eastward of Porto Rico and consist of St. Thomas, St. Croix, and St. John, and a number of lesser islets. The combined area amounts to only 133 square miles, with a population of about thirty thousand, but the islands possess great strategic importance, and this chiefly explains the desire of the United States to acquire them. The formal transfer was made March 31, 1917, and the new possession henceforth was known as the Virgin Islands.

Purchase of Danish West Indies

CHAPTER XIII

WILSON'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION

[*Author's Note:* The nation now, unwittingly and unwillingly, finds itself swept into the very storm center of the Great World War. Having whole-heartedly accepted the unwonted responsibilities thus thrust upon her, the nation is bending every energy in mobilizing her gigantic forces and resources for the titanic conflict. She is called upon to feed and finance the Allied nations, is assembling and training huge armies for active service in Europe, is enrolling a vast naval force and building great fleets of ships for her naval and merchant marine.

In this chapter we breathe the inspiration of a mighty people directing its giant energies for the establishment and defense of world democracy.]

AS March 4, 1917, fell on Sunday, President Wilson took the oath of office informally that day in his room at the Capitol in the presence of his Cabinet and a few other persons. After repeating the oath first taken by Washington, he kissed the Bible at the passage reading:

"God is our refuge and strength, a very present help in trouble."

The formal inauguration ceremonies were held on the 5th. Patriotism was strongly emphasized in the parade and in the President's inaugural address, which contained an earnest appeal for united Americanism. Large numbers of troops were present to preserve order and protect the President against attack, but the day closed without any untoward incident.

The success of certain senators in preventing a vote granting the President power to arm merchantmen so aroused public feeling, that, on March 8, the Senate, which had met in extra session, voted to abandon its long-standing rule permitting unlimited debate. The reform was one that had been badly needed, for hitherto it had been within the power of a few senators to prevent any legislation to which they were bitterly opposed.

PRESIDENT WILSON AND HIS WAR CABINET

Ultimately the President decided that he already possessed the power to arm merchantmen, and guns and gun crews were provided for such vessels as rapidly as possible. It was certain that if Germany persisted in her submarine course an armed clash would be only a matter of time and that formal warfare would inevitably follow.

GERMANY'S RASHNESS

To many people it seemed strange that Germany should persist in a course that might result in the great Republic of the West joining the already long list of her enemies. It would seem, however, that when the German authorities decided upon unlimited submarine warfare, they hoped that the United States would continue to endure outrages and would protest with words, but would take no action. They hoped, also, that the influence of pacifists and pro-Germans would suffice to keep us from breaking relations with Germany. Even after relations were broken the Germans were skeptical as to our actually joining in the war against them. Our failure to carry out any real measures of preparedness undoubtedly encouraged Germany to believe that we would not fight to protect our rights and also led them to think that, even if we entered the war, we would be unable to play any important or decisive part in the conflict. The German authorities knew that our army was small and our supply of munitions negligible, and they hoped to bring their antagonists to terms before we could make any considerable preparation.

FOREWARNED BUT NOT FOREARMED

Never before, perhaps, was the precept of the Father of the Republic, that the surest way of preserving peace is to be prepared for war, better exemplified. Both the country and its rulers had ignored the precept and were to reap a bitter penalty. We had been amply forewarned but we had failed to forearm.

One result of the filibuster conducted by Senators Stone, La Follette, and their confederates, had been that the army appropriation bill and other vital measures had failed to pass Congress. An extra session was thereby rendered inevitable, and, on March 9, President Wilson summoned such a session to meet on April 16. Ten days later, however, news arrived of the sinking, with loss of life, of three American merchant ships, the *Vigilancia*, the *Illinois*, and the *City of Memphis*. The news aroused fresh indignation and set at rest all doubts as to the German policy. On March 21, therefore, President Wilson issued a proclamation calling upon Congress to assemble two

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weeks earlier than the date set in his previous call, to receive a communication on "grave questions of national policy".

Pacifist and Pro-German Efforts

In the interval, pacifists and pro-Germans made frantic efforts to prevent action, but the great mass of the nation were at last in the mood to face realities. They had come to see that patience had ceased to be a virtue, and that force was the only argument that Germany respected. Patriotic rallies were held in many places, and the determination and enthusiasm displayed at these made clear the fact that the old American spirit was not dead.

CHAMP CLARK
Speaker of the House

Congress assembled amid scenes of great excitement. Thousands of pacifists and pro-Germans had journeyed to Washington to make their pleas, but they were greatly outnumbered by virile "Pilgrims of Patriotism" who urged that we must act in accord with the traditions of a glorious past, and not supinely permit our most sacred rights to be trodden underfoot. The true spirit of the country was echoed by Dr. Henry M. Couden, the blind chaplain of the House of Representatives, who said in his prayer at the opening of that body:

True American Spirit

"Diplomacy has failed; moral suasion has failed; every appeal to reason and justice has been swept aside. We abhor war and love peace. But if war has been, or shall be, forced upon us, we pray that the heart of every American citizen shall throb with

patriotic zeal; that a united people may rally around our President to hold up his hands in every measure that shall be deemed necessary to protect American lives and safeguard our inherent rights."

Champ Clark Re-elected Speaker

Party membership in the House of Representatives was so nearly equal that a prolonged struggle over the organization of that body had seemed probable, but partisanship, in large measure, was put aside, and Champ Clark was reëlected Speaker over James R. Mann, the Republican candidate, by 217 to 205.

That night, President Wilson, escorted by a squadron of cavalry, proceeded to the Capitol to deliver a momentous address before the joint session of Congress assembled in the hall of the House of Representatives. The scene was one never to be forgotten. In front of the Speaker and facing him sat the venerable justices of the supreme court, while to one side sat the members of the diplomatic corps in evening dress. The representatives of Great Britain and France and Russia and Italy and of outraged little Belgium were there, their hearts no doubt exultant over the seeming certainty that in their stupendous battle for civilization they were soon to receive the aid of the mighty young giant of the West. The representatives were already in their seats, when the doors were opened and in filed the senators, headed by Vice-President Marshall, and all, with a few marked exceptions, wearing or bearing the Stars and Stripes. At thirty-seven minutes past eight o'clock, the Speaker announced: "The President of the United States."

As President Wilson walked in and passed up the aisle to the Speaker's platform, he received an ovation such as had never before greeted him on appearing in that hall. The staid judges of the supreme court rose and led the cheering, while senators and representatives and the distinguished audience in the galleries cheered and cheered, so that for two minutes the President could not begin his address.

Wilson's War Message

The speech proved in every way worthy of the momentous occasion that called it forth. It pointed out that Germany had at last thrown all restraints aside and engaged in "the wanton and wholesale destruction of the lives of noncombatants, men, women, and children". The challenge was "to all mankind", and each nation must decide for itself, but "there is one choice we cannot make, we are incapable of making; we will not choose the path of submission and suffer the most sacred rights of our nation and our

BUILDING BARRACKS AT CANTONMENT

people to be ignored or violated." The President asserted that "armed neutrality" had become impracticable, "because submarines are in effect outlaws," and he earnestly asked that Congress declare that the recent course of the German government constituted war against the United States and that immediate steps be taken to increase the armed forces of the country and bring the war thus thrust upon us to a victorious end. The material resources of the country must be mobilized, we must co-operate with the Entente Allies, we must extend liberal financial credits to these powers, we must increase our army and navy, and he recommended that this last should be done in part in accordance with "the principle of universal liability to service".

Our quarrel, he pointed out, was not with the German people but with an irresponsible autocracy that had dragged that people into war, an autocracy that "was not and could never be our friend", that had "filled our unsuspecting communities, and even our offices of government, with spies, and had set afoot everywhere criminal intrigues against our national unity of counsel, our peace within and without, our industries and our commerce". Against this ambitious and unscrupulous autocracy we must fight, and "the world must be made safe for democracy". The address closed with a splendid peroration:

A Splendid Peroration

"There are, it may be, many months of fiery trial and sacrifice ahead of us. It is a fearful thing to lead this great, peaceful people into war, into the most terrible and disastrous of all wars, civilization itself seeming to be in the balance.

"But the right is more precious than peace, and we shall fight for the things that we have always carried nearest our hearts—for democracy, for the right of those who submit to authority to have a voice in their own governments, for the rights and liberties of small nations, for a universal dominion of right by such a concert of free peoples as shall bring peace and safety to all nations and make the world itself at last free.

"To such a task we can dedicate our lives and fortunes, everything that we are and everything that we have, with the pride of those who know that the day has come when America is privileged to spend her blood and her might for the principles that gave her birth and happiness and the peace which she has treasured.

"God helping her, she can do no other."

TARGET INSTRUCTION—TRAINING CAMP

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Joint resolutions declaring that a state of war had been thrust upon the country by the act of Germany and authorizing and directing the President to employ our strength and resources to carry on the war "to a successful termination" were introduced in both houses of Congress the same night. They passed the Senate, April 4, by the decisive vote of 82 to 6, and the House, April 6, by 373 to 50, and they were signed by the President the same afternoon. Several speeches were made in opposition by Senator LaFollette and others, but Congress and the country had grown weary of the cry of peace when there was no peace, and had awakened to the need of defending rights against a country which respected neither promises nor humanity.

State of War Formally Recognized

It will be the final judgment of history that never before had a great and powerful nation shown greater forbearance in the face of gross insults and bloody wrongs, and that never was a declaration of war more thoroughly justified. Germany under its Prussian rulers had become the common enemy of mankind and of civilization, and America's plain duty was to aid in saving the world from military despotism.

A Just War

One of the first acts in recognition of the state of war was the seizure of all German ships that had taken refuge in the harbors of the United States. Over ninety vessels, with a total tonnage of about six hundred thousand, were thus seized. Included in that number were several German warships, none of which, however, were powerful. The largest vessel of all was the giant *Vaterland*, of 54,000 tons. Most of the vessels seized had been damaged by their crews, and one gunboat, the *Cormoran*, lying at Manila, was blown up by its officers. Work was speedily begun toward repairing the vessels, and, as fast as the repairs were completed, the vessels were put to use.

American Loyalty

In his address to Congress the President had announced that "if there should be disloyalty, it will be dealt with with a firm hand of stern repression". Happily, when it became a choice between Germany and the United States, the great mass of Americans of German extraction wisely preferred the land of democracy to that of autocracy, and proved as patriotic as any other citizens. Even German-born immigrants, who had not become citizens, generally went quietly about their ordinary business and complied with the rules laid down for their observance, so that it was necessary to

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intern only a few. In isolated instances individuals, moved by perverted sympathies or German gold, endeavored to stir up trouble, but they were speedily placed where they could do no harm. In certain states of the far West the Industrial Workers of the World, an anarchical organization similar to the Syndicalists of Europe, created a number of disturbances and caused serious labor troubles, but some of the leaders were arrested and imprisoned, and the rest

BARBED WIRE ENTANGLEMENT—TRAINING CAMP

Internal Enemies

subsided. It was generally believed that some of the I. W. W. leaders had been bribed by German agents. A number of newspapers, particularly Socialist organs and papers printed in the German language, grew seditious in their utterances, and some were denied the use of the mails, while the editors and proprietors of a few others were arrested. Upon the whole, however, though a large number of people, from one reason or another, were not in sympathy with the war, the country generally was better united in support of it than had been the case in any other of our great armed conflicts except perhaps the war with Spain.

As soon as relations with Germany were broken, the government began feverish and belated preparations for war. Efforts were made to increase the enlisted strength of the army and navy, but at first men volunteered slowly. Steel nets were stretched across the mouths of the principal harbors, hundreds of submarine "chasers" were ordered built, and every effort was made to put the country on a war footing.

Our Unpreparedness

It was clear to the well informed, however, that many months must pass before the United States could take any very active part in the war. Although prior to 1914 we had been appropriating almost half as much money for our little army as Germany was expending on her vast military establishment, our money was spent to such poor purpose that our army numbered only about a hundred thousand, and the break with Germany found it sadly deficient in artillery, shells, machine guns, aeroplanes, and other essentials of modern warfare, while many of the officers had failed to keep abreast of the progress in their profession. Relatively the navy was stronger than the army, being third in rank among those of the nations, but even the navy was deficient in many things, particularly in swift battle cruisers, scout cruisers, and destroyers.

Large sums had been appropriated many months before to increase the strength of the navy, but even the contracts for many of the vessels thus authorized had not yet been let. These contracts were now hastily let, but it was certain that two or three years would elapse before the great battle cruisers could be ready for use. The expiring Sixty-fourth Congress appropriated over half a billion dollars additional for the navy, but unfortunately money could not be immediately transmuted into guns, hydroplanes, ships, and trained men.

The British Navy Our Bulwark

Military and naval men clearly realized that, if it had not been for the activities of our allies, we should have been at the mercy of the Germans. Happily the British navy held the high seas in overwhelming force, and behind this bulwark we were able to carry out our eleventh-hour preparations to vindicate our rights. It was certain that in this work much of the old American readiness and energy and skill would be displayed, but it was equally certain that much of what was done would have to be hasty improvisation and that it would be necessary to pour out treasure and probably blood with a lavish hand.

INFANTRY MARCHING DRILL—TRAINING CAMP

Both of treasure and of blood the United States happily had a great abundance. In the middle of April, both houses of Congress unanimously passed a bill appropriating the stupendous sum of seven billion dollars to carry on the war. Of this sum three billions were to be loaned to our allies in the great conflict.

In May, the government invited public subscriptions to a two billion dollar loan, the interest rate being fixed at three and a half per cent, with privilege of conversion into any bonds bearing higher interest that might later be issued. Millionaires and humble wage-workers vied with each other in the patriotic work of taking this Liberty Loan, as it was called, and when the books were closed, on the 15th of June, the loan had been oversubscribed a billion dollars. There were almost three million individual subscribers.

Mobilizing Our Resources

Every effort was made to mobilize the vast material resources of the country for the fight against despotism. Thousands of the ablest men of the country gave their time and labor toward securing a co-ordination of our industrial and agricultural efforts, and a number of laws were passed to that end. In August, what was known as the Food Control Law was passed, for the purpose of "encouraging the production, conserving the supply, and controlling the distribution of food products and fuel". The law created the office of Chief Food Administrator, and to fill this place the President appointed Herbert C. Hoover, a man who had made his name famous the world over by his wonderful work in relieving the needs of Belgium. The law also provided for a price-fixing board, to the head of which the President appointed Harry A. Garfield, president of Williams College and a son of James A. Garfield, the former President of the United States. The price of wheat was soon fixed at $2.20 a bushel at Chicago, while the price of coal, which had been manipulated until it was excessive, was greatly reduced.

The Problem of Ships

Following the declaration of ruthless warfare, the destruction of merchant vessels by German submarines and mines attained such proportions as to cause grave apprehensions. American scientists and inventors set earnestly to work evolving plans for meeting the menace, while vast plans were formed for replacing the ships sunk. To manage this last work a Shipping Board was created headed by William Denman of San Francisco; and Major-General Goethals, builder of the Panama canal, was appointed director-in-chief of

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the great undertaking. The program called for an expenditure of $750,000,000 and for the building of both steel and wooden ships. Unfortunately the two heads of the enterprise were unable to work in harmony; General Goethals resigned, and the President asked

HERBERT C. HOOVER, FOOD ADMINISTRATOR

for and received the resignation of Mr. Denman. The President then appointed Rear-Admiral Washington Lee Capps to succeed Goethals and Edward N. Hurley of Illinois to succeed Denman. Although the work was somewhat delayed by this unfortunate

wrangle, scores of ships were soon building, and the facilities for construction work were being constantly expanded. It was certain that by the end of the war the United States would be one of the chief maritime nations.

Because of the world shortage of food, every effort was made to stimulate production during the coming growing season. Organizations in every part of the country began to agitate the subject. In every city great numbers of home gardens were planted, and

CAVALRY DRILL—TRAINING CAMP

Food Conservation

vacant lots were planted to potatoes, corn, beans, and other products. The great farming population rallied to the call magnificently and worked early and late to plant a great acreage, to tend the growing crops, and to harvest the products. The success of the great movement varied somewhat in different localities, according to the rainfall and other factors, but the general result equaled the highest expectations. The wheat crop, to be sure, was not so large as in some previous years, but the yield of corn, oats, and various other products exceeded anything the country had ever known. The women of the land rallied to the work of saving what had been raised, and never before had there been such quantities

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of food canned, dried, and otherwise preserved. The sum total of all the great food effort promised to contribute more to a final victory than the winning of several battles.

As time passed and the spirit of patriotism mounted, the number of volunteers in the regular army, the navy, and the national guard steadily increased until, by September 1, 1917, there were about

BOMB-THROWING PRACTICE—TRAINING CAMP

nine hundred thousand men under arms in these three branches of the national service. Great military camps were established in various parts of the country, and the whole nation resounded with the tramp of the noble young patriots who had responded to the call to service and sacrifice.

Passage of the Conscription Act

From the first, it was believed by many that the principle of universal liability to service should be established, and the President had so recommended in his message to Congress. Notwithstanding some opposition, a conscription act passed Congress on May 18 and was signed by the President. It provided that all men between

the ages of 21 and 30 years inclusive must register their names, and that from among those thus registered enough should be drawn to bring the army of the United States up to two million men.

One clause of the act authorized the President, at his discretion, to accept the services of four divisions of volunteers, the object of this provision being to render it possible to make use of a force which a virile and energetic former President, Theodore Roosevelt, stood ready to raise. Two hundred thousand men offered to join this force, a number greater than had then entered the regular army, the navy, and the national guard combined, but the President, on military grounds, declined to accept the offer.

Roosevelt's Services Declined

One of the many tremendous tasks that confronted the country was that of providing officers to command the new forces. Experience had shown that, under competent training, a raw recruit could be transformed into a fairly efficient private in from six months to a year, but a competent officer could not be made in that time, and good officers were important to the last degree. A regiment that marched to battle under incompetent officers marched simply to slaughter.

The regular army was, of course, well officered, and, in addition, there were available a limited number of trained men who were in civil life. Many of the National Guard officers were keen, intelligent, patriotic men, and a large proportion of them had seen field service along the border, but comparatively few were well grounded in the art of war, judged by European standards. Even many of the regular army officers were not abreast of recent developments in warfare.

Great Need of Training

Experience in the Civil War had shown that an old, skeleton regiment filled up with recruits was far more effective as a fighting force than an entirely new organization, and General Grant had said that "one drafted man in an old regiment is worth three in a new one." The military authorities reorganized the regular army in accordance with this theory. The strength of the regiments was approximately trebled. The new regiments contained 103 officers and 3600 men, organized as follows: a headquarters and headquarters company; 3 battalions of 4 rifle companies each; a machine-gun company; a supply company; a medical detachment.

It was inevitable that this course of procedure should temporarily lower the efficiency of the whole regular army. Not only were

Army Reorganization

about two-thirds of the privates raw men, but new officers had to be found to meet the expansion and to supply the places left by officers transferred to the National Guard and the National Army. But the veteran privates and the experienced officers were soon able to work wonders in training the new men, most of whom were of the highest possible grade and eager to learn. It was believed that by the spring of 1918 the expanded army would be approximately as efficient as the old, and it would possess the great advantage of being three times as numerous.

The higher positions in the military forces were filled almost wholly with men who had had West Point training, but tens of thousands of under officers were needed in the expanded regular army, the National Guard, and, most of all, in the new National Army, the creation of which will presently be described. A comparatively few officers in the Reserve Corps were available. Most of the men who had attended the Plattsburg training camp the previous year volunteered their services, and a few Americans who had had experience in various wars received commissions, but chief dependence was placed upon the output of sixteen training camps that were opened at various places in the United States for the training of officers.

These camps were open to Reserve officers of the line and engineers, members of the Officers' Reserve Corps Training Unit, certain authorized members of the National Guard, graduates of military schools, and educated civilians, with or without military training, who were able to convince the authorities that they were promising material. Forty thousand men were desired, but many more than this number applied for entrance. Those accepted formed perhaps the finest body of men, mentally, morally, physically, that had ever been assembled in America. For the most part, they were college graduates, some were world famous athletes, many were men who had already attained distinction in civil pursuits.

New Officers Required

The camps were "a kind of hot-house West Point, minus the academic work and its theoretical training—and plus some very up-to-date war lessons." It was, of course, impossible, in three months' time, to transform the candidates into thoroughly trained officers, but some progress was made toward grounding them in the rudiments of military work. The instruction was chiefly in the hands of regular army officers, but French and British officers

also gave valuable assistance, particularly in the new methods of warfare. In the middle of August, the more promising candidates received commissions. A new series of camps, with fewer men, were opened soon after.

Negroes as well as white men were subject to the conscription act, and to supply officers for the colored troops a special reserve officers' camp was opened, June 18, at Fort Des Moines. Twelve hundred and fifty colored citizens were enrolled in this camp, a picked body representing every State in the Union, many colleges, and every profession in which the colored man has distinguished himself. Tuskegee Institute, founded by Booker T. Washington, sent sixty men, and two hundred and fifty men from the four regular regiments of colored troops were admitted as candidates. On October 15, commissions were issued to 625 of the men who had taken training; 105 were made captains, and the rest lieutenants and second-lieutenants.

Negro Training Camps

THE "CHICAGO", U. S. N.

ARTILLERY HIKE—TRAINING CAMP

CHAPTER XIV

PREPARING A GREAT ARMY AND NAVY

[*Author's Note:* The nation is now fully embarked in preparations for war. While President Wilson had aroused no little criticism by his hesitancy and reluctance to enter the war, now that the die had been cast, the administration and the entire country entered enthusiastically and energetically into a most extensive work of preparation. The mobilization and training of a force of 2,000,000 men was begun, and a vast program of expansion and activity for the navy and merchant marine was inaugurated. Stupendous plans for financing war needs at home and of the Allied nations abroad were put under way, and comprehensive and far-reaching organization for the production and conservation of food, fuel, and other necessities, was effected. In this chapter we see the energies of a giant nation aroused and enlisted for the freedom of the peoples, and the peace of the world.]

Armored Torpedo Boat

THE President named June 5 as the day of registration, and, on that date, nearly ten million young men proceeded to the registration places and set down their names. In Oklahoma, Kentucky, and a few scattered localities in other states there were weak attempts at resistance to the law but, considering the vastness of the country and the number of men involved, the acquiescence of the people was highly creditable to their intelligence and their patriotism.

On July 20, the greatest lottery in the history of the world took place at Washington when the relative liability to call in the 4,557 districts was determined by lot. Secretary of War Baker, blindfolded, drew out the first number, which was 258, and thus it was determined that in every exemption district the man whose number was 258 was the first man drafted for the army.

Soon thereafter the various exemption boards began the task of selecting the first contingent of 687,000 men. A few classes of persons had been expressly exempted by the law. Men physically

NEW CONSCRIPTS MARCHING THROUGH FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK

defective and those with persons wholly dependent upon them for support were exempted by the boards, at least for the present, as were some others whose work in civil pursuits was regarded as indispensable, while members of certain religious organizations that made opposition to war one of their tenets, were excused from all except non-combatant service. Upon the whole, the sifting process was conducted on a high plane, and there were few charges

HENRY T. BARNETT, FIRST DRAFTED SOLDIER

of favoritism or dishonesty in the administration of the law. Many young men who asked for exemption were refused it, yet there were few instances of attempts to evade service by flight, and there was no organized resistance. Early in September, the men chosen began to proceed to the training camps.

Work of Exemption Boards

One of the chief criticisms of the law was that it drafted but did not select, and that in applying it different boards adopted different rules. The result was that in some districts married men with children were exempted while in others they were taken. In October, it was announced that the Provost-Marshal had evolved a new

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER — Order of Liability

system that ranged men of draft age in five classes according to their order of liability. The first class included: 1. Single men without dependent relatives. 2. Married men (or widowers) with children, who habitually failed to support their families. 3. Married men dependent upon their wives for support. 4. Married men (or widowers) with children, not usefully engaged; families supported by income independent of their labor. 5. Men not specifically included in any other class. 6. Unskilled laborers. From these registrants the liability to service descended through three other classes to Class V, which included officers in the State or Federal governments, ministers of the gospel and students of divinity, aliens and alien enemies, persons morally unfit, persons mentally or physically unfit, and licensed pilots.

Under the new plan each registrant was required to fill out a new *questionnaire*, after which he would be classified. It was expected that a new call for men would be issued late in the winter or early in the spring.

All the chief Entente Powers sent commissions to the United States to convey their greetings and sense of appreciation, and to discuss means for securing effective co-operation with their new ally against the common foe. The British commission, headed by Arthur Balfour, Foreign Minister and former Premier, was the first to arrive, and it was quickly followed by the French commission, among the members of which were Minister of Justice Viviani, a former Premier, the immortal Marshal Joffre, and the Marquis de Chambrun, a lineal descendant of our benefactor, the Marquis de Lafayette.

Entente Commissions

These commissions, as well as those that came later, were everywhere greeted with great enthusiasm. The French mission made a tour of the Middle West, and wherever they appeared drew great crowds. Memories of the days when France had sent sorely-needed aid to our struggling forefathers rose in every mind, and it could truly be said that Lafayette and Rochambeau, though long dead, were still performing effective service for their beloved France. People were especially eager to see Marshal Joffre, the hero who as Allied commander at the Marne had turned back the German horde and won one of the supreme military triumphs of all history.

The spokesman of the French delegation was M. Viviani, and he acquitted himself well at this task, but there was also eagerness

to hear the great Marshal of France. When the delegation visited the Senate, Viviani delivered a notable and effective address, after which there were calls for "Joffre!" "Joffre!" The Marshal said with a smile, "I do not speak English". Then, in a louder voice

MARSHAL JOSEPH JACQUES CESAIRE JOFFRE
Of the French War Mission

and with uplifted right hand, he cried: "*Vivent les Etats Unis!*" With a military salute, he was gone.

At Chicago he was prevailed upon to make what was comparatively a long address. Standing before a vast crowd, he said:

ALLIED WAR MISSIONS AT MT. VERNON

"My friends, I am proud to have in my hand the American flag, which is to the American people what the French flag is to the people of France, a symbol of liberty. I hold in my other hand the flag of France, who has given of her best, her stanchest, and her bravest, and which also stands for liberty. I had the honor to carry the French flag on the field of battle, and I am glad to join the flag of many battles to the flag that has never known defeat. With this flag I bring to you the salute of the French army to the American people, our stanch ally in the common cause."

Amid great cheers, he then joined the Stars and Stripes and the French Tricolor; a fitting act, since the colors of each were red, white, and blue, and each was the standard of a great republic.

Honors to Joffre

At Philadelphia Joffre was given a marshal's baton made from part of a rafter of Independence Hall, "a piece of real liberty", he called it; at Boston he received a replica in gold of the Statue of Liberty; everywhere money was showered upon him for the relief of French wounded and widows and orphans. The admiration and affection with which he was received, the many eloquent tributes paid to his valor, the outpourings of good will for his country, more than once moved the fatherly old hero to tears—tears partly induced, we may believe, by the happy thought that this great powerful land, with its unlimited resources of men and money, was rushing to the aid of his beloved France. Never since the final visit of Lafayette had a foreigner received such an ovation in America, and the best of it all was that it was fully deserved, for it will be written in history that this splendid soldier, in a time of crisis, rendered not only France, but the world, a supreme service.

Missions at Mount Vernon

On April 29, the British and French missions and certain notable Americans paid a visit of respect to the tomb of Washington. Marshal Joffre laid upon the marble sarcophagus a bronze palm wound with the French Tricolor—the symbol which France bestows upon those who have died for their country. The British mission placed beside the French offering a wreath of lilies, attached to which was a card bearing the following words written by Mr. Balfour:

"Dedicated by the British Mission to the immortal memory of George Washington, soldier, statesman, patriot, who would have rejoiced to see the country of which he was by birth a citizen and the country his genius called into existence, fighting side by side to save mankind from a military despotism."

ARRIVAL OF JAPANESE WAR MISSION

The occasion was one to call into every mind thronging thoughts of the past, the present, and the future, and M. Viviani was so inspired that, in his short address, he struck off passages of high eloquence and power. One such passage was as follows:

"While paying this supreme tribute to the memory of Washington I do not diminish the effect of my words when I turn my thoughts to the memory of so many unnamed heroes. I ask you before this tomb to bow in earnest meditation and all the fervor of piety before all the soldiers of the Allied nations who for nearly three years have been fighting under different flags for the same ideal. I beg you to address the homage of your hearts and souls to all the heroes, born to live in happiness, in the tranquil pursuit of their labors, in the enjoyment of all human affections, who went into battle with virile cheerfulness and gave themselves up, not to death alone, but to the eternal silence that closes over those whose sacrifice remains unnamed, in the full knowledge that save for those who loved them their names would disappear with their bodies. Their monument is in our hearts. Not the living alone greet us here; the ranks of the dead themselves rise to surround the soldiers of liberty."

Japanese Mission

A Japanese mission, headed by Viscount K. Ishii, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary, arrived in San Francisco on August 13, and was accorded an enthusiastic greeting. Viscount Ishii proved to be one of the most tactful of all the representatives who visited the United States, and on various occasions he spoke with great felicity. In view of past misunderstandings and of German efforts to embroil the United States with Japan, one of his utterances soon after landing deserves to be quoted.

"In the dawning of this new day of stress and strain," said he, "let us forget the little molehills that have been exaggerated into mountains to bar our good relations. Let us see together with a clearer vision the pitfalls dug by a cunning enemy in our path, let us together fix our eyes upon the star of the principle which shall lead us together most surely to a participation in the triumph of the right, to a certain victory in the greatest and, let us hope, the last great war in human history."

In an address at the tomb of Washington, he said that "Washington was an American, but America, great as she is, powerful as she is, certain as she is of her splendid destiny, can lay no exclusive

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

claim to this immortal name. Washington is now a citizen of the world; to-day he belongs to all mankind—Japan claims entrance to this holy circle."

At Newport, Rhode Island, he visited the tomb of Commodore

VISCOUNT KIKUJIRO ISHII
Of the Japanese War Mission

Perry and placed upon it a large wreath made up in the colors of Japan, with white lilies and red gladiolas. The next day, he delivered an address in the Casino in which he said:

"Newport is storied in the mind of every school child in Japan

as the resting-place of Commodore Matthew Perry. Not so long ago but that living men well remember and tell it to their grandchildren, Japan lived in isolation, well contented. One day there came a knocking at our door and, looking forth, we saw strange sights indeed. Fantastic folk in awesome ships with gruesome guns held out the hand of friendship, and thus came America and Commodore Perry to our shores.

Ishii on Perry

"These sixty years just passed must constitute one full chapter in the history of Japan. During all that time the Pacific Ocean, then so illimitable to us, has been growing more narrow daily. The East and the West, which stood aloof without a thing in common except their common humanity, have been drawn closer and ever closer together until today we stand shoulder to shoulder as friends and allies, defying the power of evil to destroy that splendid heritage which we are agreed to share as common heirs."

Viscount Ishii and his compatriots were immensely pleased with the great cordiality of their reception in America, and it was well for both nations that there should be such reminders of the peculiar bonds of friendship that had been created between them. The mission undoubtedly did much toward insuring future good will and gave the lie to German stories that war would break out between the United States and Japan. Americans were beginning to see that the "yellow peril" was "made in Germany", and it was the opinion of observers that Germany's long years of effort to embroil this country and Japan had been brought to nothing.

Agreement with Japan

On November 2, Viscount Ishii and Secretary of State Lansing signed an important agreement regarding various matters. For good reasons not all the details of the agreement were made public. It was stated, however, that the United States had recognized that Japan "has special interests in China"—similar to those of the United States in Mexico—but that both governments would "adhere to the principle of the so-called 'open-door', or equal opportunity for commerce and industry in China", and that "the territorial integrity of China" was to remain unimpaired. It was announced by Secretary Lansing that Japan would co-operate in every practical way against Germany, and it was believed in usually well informed circles that Japan agreed to furnish the United States with merchant ships for use in the war, in return for our supplying her with steel. It was also hinted that Japan might send an army

UNITED STATES ENVOYS TO ALLIED CONFERENCE

General Bliss Colonel House Admiral Sims Vance McCormack

(Wearing life preservers while passing through war zone)

to Europe. The agreement aroused some distrust in China, and the protest was made that Chinese problems should not have been acted upon without first consulting the government of China.

Our Mission to Russia

The United States also sent commissions to Allied countries to arrange for co-operation against the common enemy. One of the most important of these commissions was that to Russia. It was headed by ex-Secretary of State Elihu Root, and included, in addition, General Hugh L. Scott, American Chief of Staff, Charles E. Russell, a prominent Socialist writer and speaker, and Cyrus H. McCormick, head of the International Harvester Company. The commission crossed the Pacific and reached Russia by way of the Siberian railway, subsequently returning by the same route. The commission found that America's part in the war had been greatly misrepresented by German propagandists and by some irresponsible Russian radicals, notably Leon Trotzky, who had hastened from exile in America and now maligned the country that had given him protection. The commission was, however, generally well received, and there seemed to be ground for hope that its work would aid the struggling nation to pass through its political crisis. The commission had been preceded by a number of American engineers, headed by John F. Stevens, formerly chief engineer of the Panama Canal, and these men took up the work of helping to improve Russia's defective transportation system. Large sums of money were also advanced by the United States to Russia, and in every possible way a helping hand was extended to those who were trying to control Russia's destinies.

Our Mission to Allies

In November, an American commission arrived in Europe for the purpose of arranging a more complete co-ordination of activities with our allies. The commission included Colonel E. M. House, who had long been acting as a sort of special diplomatic representative of President Wilson, General Tasker M. Bliss, Chief of the General Staff, and Admiral W. S. Benson, Chief of Naval Operations. After conferences in Great Britain, Colonel House and General Bliss, by the President's direction, proceeded to Paris and attended the first meeting of the Supreme War Council. This was a body that had recently been established to secure closer co-operation between the Entente Allies. The need of such a body had long been obvious, and Premier Lloyd George had taken advantage of the situation produced by the Italian disaster to bring about its creation.

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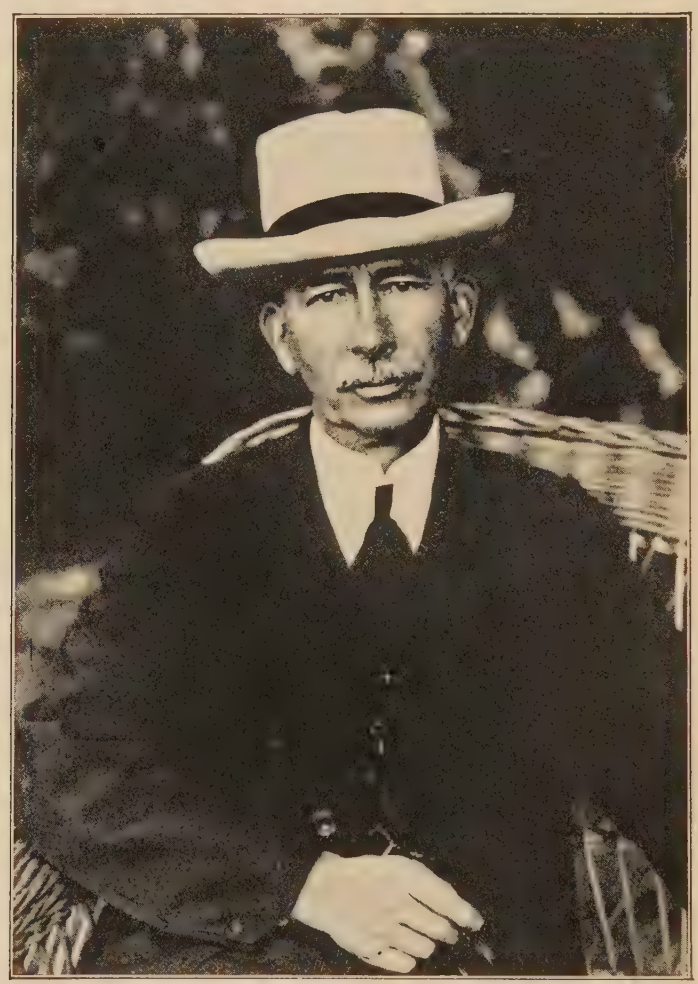
Meanwhile, the work of preparing for our own active participation in the war was pushed as rapidly as possible. It was planned not only to send great numbers of American infantrymen and artillerymen to the Western front, but also great fleets of aeroplanes.



COLONEL E. M. HOUSE

Congress appropriated $640,000,000 for the aviation service, while thousands of young men were trained to operate the machines when completed. The greatest care was taken in the selection of these men, and only candidates who were active in body and mind, seemingly cool-headed, and keen of eye, were accepted. The men

were first given preliminary training in "ground schools", and then those that survived this ordeal were sent to the aviation training camps. In the ground schools they were taught a knowledge of the stars in order that at night they would be able to pilot their machines in the right direction; the theory of aeronautics; the construction of airplanes; the operation of machine guns; wireless telegraphy; French and other subjects; and by an ingenious device were given practice in "spotting" bursting shells.

Aviation Training Schools

Many aviation fields for the training of fliers were established, but the largest was located at Dayton, Ohio, where the Wright brothers first invented a successful heavier-than-air machine. The "Wilbur Wright Field" contained about twenty-five hundred acres, and, in six weeks' time, it was transformed from a stretch of farming land, covered with crops, fences, and farmhouses, with occasional patches of woodland, into a level plain, free from obstructions, with nearly two miles of hangars and other buildings needed for the equipment of such a school. Here the men coming from the ground schools continued their training in subsidiary matters and were also taught actually to fly. Many of the keenest aviators in the French and British services were instructors in this and other schools.

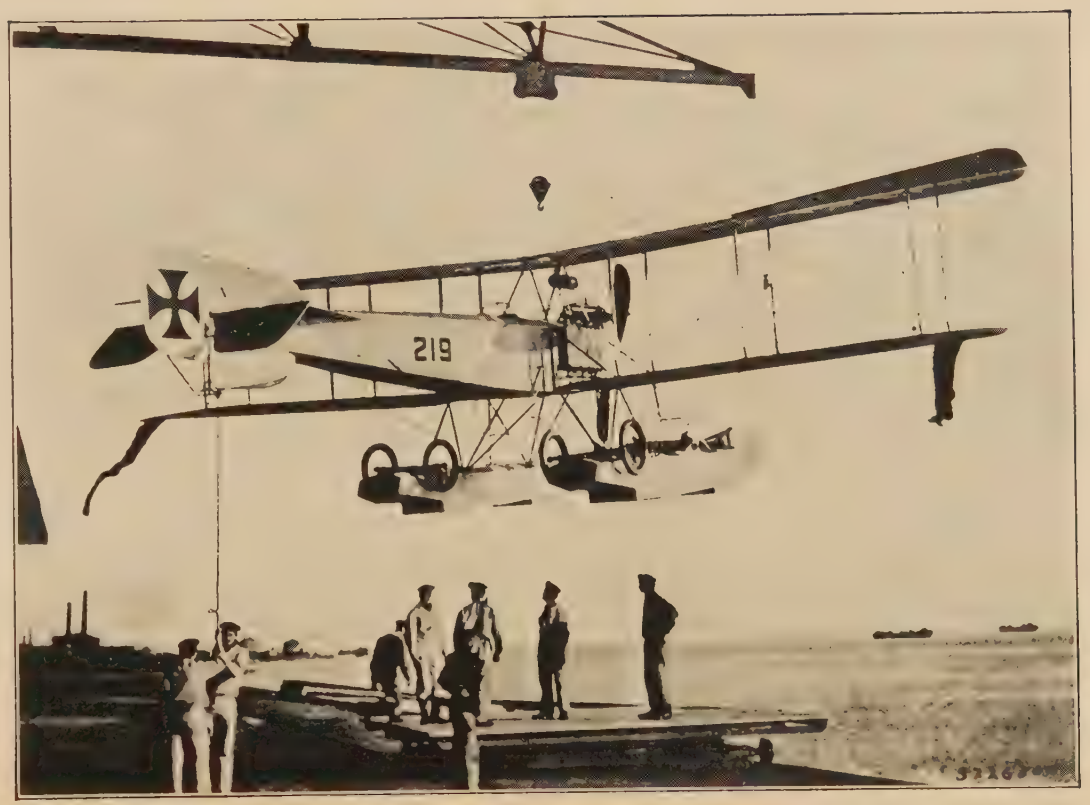
From the aviation fields in America the aviation students passed on to France, where they received the final polishing touches that would fit them to go out and meet the enemy.

In addition to the men passing through this course, a considerable number of Americans, soon after the outbreak of hostilities, were sent to French and British schools for training. These men were, of course, the first to arrive at the front.

It was hoped that by the spring of 1918, thousands of American aeroplanes would be in France and Belgium ready to fight German planes, to drop bombs on military camps, ammunition dumps, munitions factories, railroads, the Rhine bridges, and other objectives. It was believed that if the Allies could attain a great superiority in the air the war would be shortened, and Allied losses in men would be vastly diminished.

Unprepared for Aerial Warfare

Unfortunately the United States government had not kept abreast of developments in aerial warfare. We were not only almost totally without aircraft but the war department had failed even to obtain designs for dependable craft or to formulate definite plans for



GERMAN AEROPLANE WITH PONTOONS

Aeroplanes thus equipped are adapted for use over either sea or land

expanding the air service. Much valuable time was, therefore, lost in preliminary work.

One of the first problems that confronted the Aircraft Production Board established by the War Department was that of quickly producing a dependable aviation motor. Some authorities suggested that we should at once adopt the designs already created by our European allies; others that we should encourage our manufacturers to evolve their own types; but it was finally decided to endeavor to produce a machine containing the best features of all types and develop a standard motor that could be produced in large quantities with great rapidity.

The "Liberty Motor"

Many motor companies and consulting engineers patriotically threw themselves into this work, and manufacturers made known their trade secrets under the emergency of war needs. In course of time there was evolved what was known as "the Liberty Motor".

The parts of the first of these engines were manufactured in a dozen different factories, scattered from Maine to California, yet when the parts were assembled, the adjustment was perfect, and the performance of the motor was said to be extremely gratifying.

After exhaustive tests, the plan was duly accepted by the Government, and steps were taken to produce them in great numbers.

Secretary of War Baker declared that the new motor was "the best aircraft engine produced in any country". It certainly did possess the advantage of being "standardized", which means that it could be produced in very great numbers and largely by machine work. French and British engines, on the other hand, had generally been highly specialized, of many different models, and required a great deal of hand work from skilled mechanics.

Caustic Criticisms

Some aviation experts were by no means so enthusiastic, either about the Liberty Motor or the plan for the completed plane. The editor of a British aviation journal declared that the specifications were for a "military pursuit machine", and he said that this characterization "would be distinctly humorous if it were not so tragic". He declared that the plans were "six months out of date five months ago", and claimed that for a military pursuit plane the American model was much too slow, carried too little gasoline, and climbed too slowly.

Time only would show whether the Liberty Motor would justify the high hopes of its designers and sponsors, or whether it would

DRAFTED MEN DETRAINING AT CANTONMENT

prove a disastrous failure. Those who had the reputation of America and the winning of the war at heart, could only hope that no mistake had been made, and that the Liberty Motor would be able to perform all the feats expected of it. The United States was, of course, building other types of engines and planes, but so much of our time and energy was being devoted to the Liberty Motor type that the failure of this type would prove a terrible disaster. Our widely advertised purpose to engage in a great aviation program had stimulated the Germans to greater efforts, and it was clear that if America failed to make good her boasts, Germany and not the Allies might control the air in 1918.

Immense Fleet of Aeroplanes

The American program called for the early construction of about twenty-three thousand planes, but this was only a part of the work that must be done. An aviation army of about a hundred thousand men would be necessary, of whom about ten thousand must be carefully trained aviators, skilled not only in the management of their machines, but also in such arts as the use of machine guns, military observation, photography, and wireless telegraphy. Great numbers of machines and many lives would necessarily be lost merely in the training of these men.

Even the gathering of material for the wings of the planes was of itself an enormous task. Selected and carefully seasoned spruce is the wood best suited for the wings, but it was extremely doubtful whether sufficient seasoned wood of this sort could be found in the world. Linen forms the best covering for the wings, but it was probable that there would be a shortage of the right kind of linen and that some substitute must be found.

The task of making the wings was fully as delicate and important though not so complicated, as that of building the engines. All imperfect wood must be cast aside. No risks could be run. "A little knot, a mere whorl in the wood, may no more be disregarded than the skull and cross-bones on a bottle of poison." Only the most expert workmen could be trusted for such work, and in one aeroplane shop, as an incitement to careful craftsmanship, there was posted the following notice: "A concealed mistake may cause a brave man to lose his life."

Time only would show whether the United States would be able in 1918 to throw into the war an air force powerful enough to achieve great results. Much precious time had been lost in formulating

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

plans and in obtaining the necessary workmen and machinery, and, meanwhile, the Germans had not been idle. They were known to have opened many new aeroplane factories and to have evolved some new and powerful types. One of these, a new Rumpler model, had a 260 horse-power Mercedes motor; could carry three men and nearly a ton of bombs; and was able to climb to a height of two miles, fully loaded, in half an hour. Another machine carrying the lighter Maybach, six-cylinder motor, could climb still more swiftly. The Germans were also constructing an all-metal machine that was more difficult to destroy. These were designed to fly at comparatively low altitudes and co-operate with advancing or retreating troops. Some of the German planes were being equipped with electric motors for use in warming the airmen at high altitudes. Oxygen respirators were also furnished to enable the men to breathe in the rarefied atmosphere at vast heights.

German Aeroplanes

One thing was certain, namely, that if the war continued, the year 1918 would witness more aerial fighting than ever before, so much more in fact that it might come to be known as "the air year". Only the men behind the scenes on the air boards were "able to foresee what that year would be like, to picture the daily and nightly scenes of terror and splendor all over Europe, the civilians cowering in cellars amid tumult of shattering explosions, the destruction of factories and bridges far behind the battle lines, the disorganization of communications and transport, and perhaps the harrying to an unbearable state of the troops that must march along the roads to and from their billets in the war zone."

Nation-wide Activities

In thousands of other factories there were being manufactured every other variety of munitions of war, from olive-drab army clothing to great howitzers and monster shells. Boards were testing new war devices evolved by patriotic inventors, and in some places men were no doubt secretly engaged in making weapons of which the world at large had never heard.

From Boston to the Golden Gate the country resounded with the tramp of recruits and the hum of industrial preparations, but the real test was yet to come. It was certain that, if the war continued, a bloody ordeal lay before the United States; and time only would show whether the Americans of the twentieth century were worthy descendants of heroic forefathers.

Meanwhile, work had been rushed on the building of the sixteen

cantonments in which the conscripted men were to be trained. This of itself was an enormous task, for, in the spring, "the sites of all sixteen were farm and wood lands, rolling prairie, 'oak openings', pine barrens, or desert, in no sense urban". The work was undertaken by construction companies on a percentage, or "cost plus" basis, the average profit being seven per cent on the cost of the work. This was an expensive method, and there was great extravagance in many instances; but time, not money, was the important consideration, and, since the nation had failed to heed the warnings of prudence and must now make improvised preparations at the eleventh hour, necessity decreed that the nation must pay the added bills.

The Cantonments

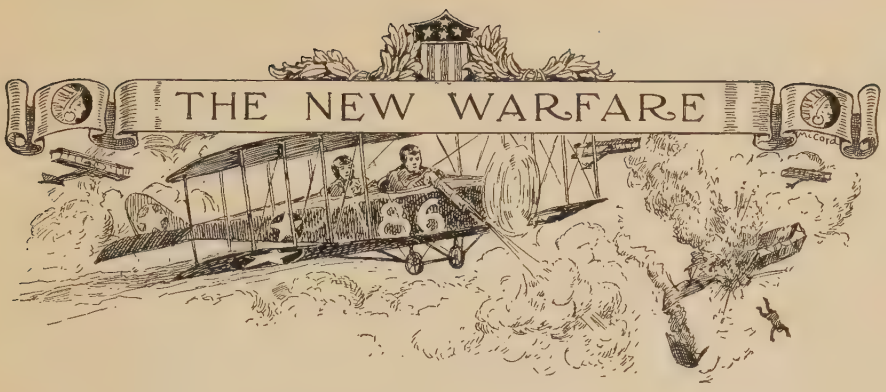
Some record exploits were performed in the building of the camps. At Camp Taylor, near Louisville, a standard barracks building, 43 by 140 feet and two stories high, was constructed in an hour and a half! At the same camp a building was erected out of lumber that, exactly a week before, was standing in the form of living pine trees in a Mississippi forest!

An adequate water supply, electric lights, a sewage system, and a hundred other things were provided at the camps. Every effort was made to provide sanitary surroundings and safeguard the health of the soldiers, and an exterminating warfare was waged against mosquitoes, one variety of which, as is well known, is a carrier of malaria. Upon the whole, the health of the camps was good. Some suffered epidemics of measles, however, and as this disease was often followed by pneumonia, a considerable number of men died.

The National Guard regiments had been called into service considerably earlier than the first contingent of the National Army, and they were gathered, for the most part, in sixteen other camps, all located in the southern half of the country. For a time, the men were chiefly housed under canvas, but as winter drew near, more substantial shelters were erected. By that time, however, many of the National Guard regiments were already "somewhere in France".

FRONT LINE TRENCH

The photograph shows trench with two wings, also opening into an underground passage



CHAPTER XV

THE NEW WARFARE

[*Author's Note:*—The stupendous conflict into which the United States had entered was the weirdest the world had ever seen. Not content to fight as of old, men engaged in strange warfare high in air and underneath the waters of the seas, and the wonders of the new warfare equaled the wildest imaginings of poets and romancers. Valor availed little without technical training and proper equipment. Neglect to keep abreast of the latest developments in war might spell disaster and national downfall. The task of the United States was hastily to improvise, with enormous effort and at enormous cost, the weapons, equipment, and training to which her enemies had devoted the study and effort of many years.]

THE slowness of the United States in putting soldiers on the firing line was in part due to a revolution in methods of warfare. Back in April of '75, it was possible for the "embattled farmers" of New England to seize their firelocks, chase the British Redcoats back into Boston, and lay siege to them there. In those days, training and munitions were helpful and necessary, but an army could be created and its simple equipment improvised much more readily than in 1917, when it required months to make a big gun and even longer to manufacture the machinery with which a big gun was made—when warfare had become so complicated that it was really a vast problem in engineering.

Our little army was poorly equipped for war even as it was waged in August, 1914, and far less so for that of 1917 when, in the short space of three years, methods had in many respects been utterly transformed. The story of that transformation is one of unique interest and great historical importance.

PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

Almost every change had been foreshadowed in the past, and it seems strange that more of them were not foreseen, but military men, like people in many other professions, are inclined to be conservative and to doubt the utility of new methods or devices. When our own Civil War began, good breech-loading rifles and even repeating rifles had been perfected, but it was only near the end of the conflict that any considerable number of troops were armed with these infinitely superior weapons.

The "Formal Fortress"

One of the first features of the old warfare to be thrown into the discard by the Great War was the "formal fortress". Since the dim days of primitive, tribal conflicts, men had been accustomed to build forts and castles of various kinds for defensive purposes. The character of these strong places had varied from time to time, and, at the outbreak of the Great War, the most popular form consisted of a ring of permanent forts, mounting heavy guns, and surrounding an inner town or citadel.

Liege, Namur, and Antwerp were defended by works of this character, and it was supposed that the forts, built as they were of heavy steel and concrete, could hold out almost indefinitely. Various nations had developed powerful howitzers capable of hurling enormous high-explosive shells for many miles, but the seeming impossibility of hitting with any regularity the turret-like cupolas of the forts with such weapons caused a leading British authority to dismiss the idea as "futile".

Aeroplane Observers

The development of artillery observation from aeroplanes and other airships transformed chance into certainty. Observers high up in the air could watch the flight of the shells and by signaling correct the aim of the gunners. The result was that the 28–, 30.2– and 42-centimeter howitzers were able quickly to change steel and concrete fortresses into pent-houses of destruction, and Liege, Namur, and Antwerp were conquered with a rapidity that astounded the world.

Military engineers quickly realized that the formal fortress, the evolution of three thousand years of warfare, had become worse than useless. As quickly as possible the forts were dismantled, and their guns were scattered about on railway and caterpillar mounts, with every possible device of concealment and camouflage, and protected merely by earthworks. In case the enemy located such guns, they would be hurriedly removed to some new position.

Verdun, which had been defended by a ring of forts as in the case of the Belgian fortresses, had been thus transformed before the mighty German drive was begun against it in February, 1916.

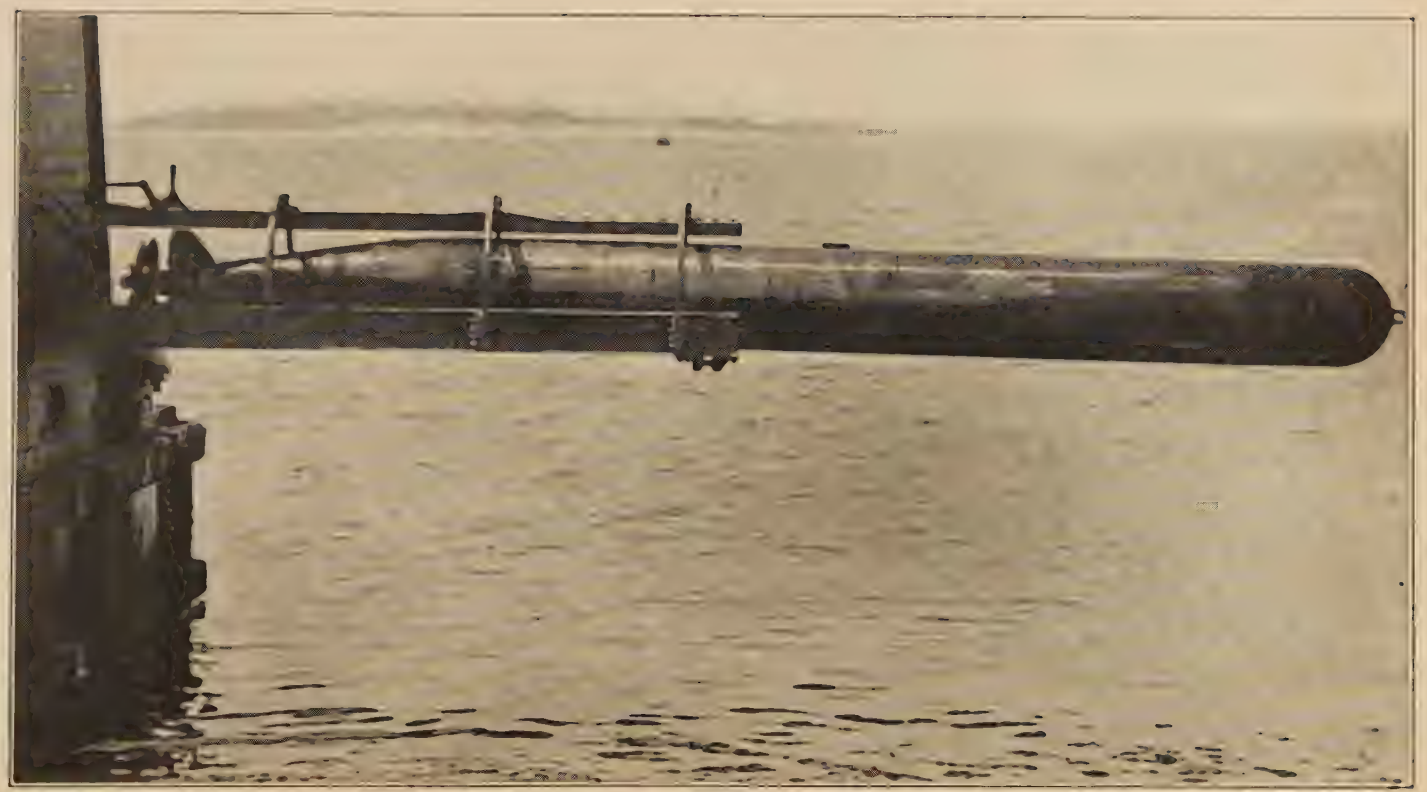
Open Field Fighting

The first great battles of the war were open field fights in which earthworks played only a subordinate part. If European military men had carefully studied certain phases of the American Civil War, particularly the story of the final defense of Richmond and Petersburg, in '64 and '65, they might have foreseen what was coming, but those in authority had not done so. It is not improbable that if the French and British chiefs had realized the possibilities of extended earthworks they might have withstood at the French border the mighty German tide that came flooding down across the Belgian plains. They did not, and Mons, Charleroi, and even the Marne were fought largely in the open. The Germans were the first to learn the great lesson, and, after the Marne, they took up and fortified positions behind the Aisne, whence all the efforts of the Allies could not dislodge them.

Thenceforth the spade became as important as the rifle in warfare, and soldiers burrowed underground like moles. So thoroughly were the armies concealed from one another that men might lie for weeks in trenches only a few hundred yards from those of their foes and never see a single hostile soldier.

Machine Guns

In defending their trenches the belligerents quickly began to utilize not only artillery and rifle fire but tangles of barbed-wire and many machine-guns. This last was a weapon the possibilities of which were not fully realized at the beginning of the war by any of the armies, though the Germans were most awake in this regard. In their wars with the Matabele, the Dervishes, and other savage or half-civilized peoples, the British had found Maxim guns, capable of firing a stream of rifle bullets, very effective, and it would seem that they ought to have more thoroughly realized the advantages of a great number of such guns in war against European armies. They were at first content, however, with two machine-guns to the battalion, nor were the French any better supplied. The Germans had a greater quota of such weapons, had given more attention to the possibilities of such weapons, and some of their early victories were in large part due to the skill with which they drew their enemies upon machine-gun positions and then mowed them down with a withering fire.



TORPEDO FIRED FROM TUBE ON TESTING TRIP

This photograph is remarkable in that it shows the torpedo leaving the tube at the moment of firing

Soon the cry arose on all sides for machine-guns and still more machine-guns. New types were evolved or adopted, and very murderous such weapons proved. Comparatively few men were killed any more with ordinary rifle bullets; it was said that ninety per cent of casualties were due either to shells or machine-gun bullets.

The "New" Weapons

Of the other so-called "new" weapons the most important were airships, poison gas, and submarines, yet none of them was really new even in warfare. An observation balloon was used at least as early as the battle of Fleurus, in 1794, and many old soldiers of the Army of the Potomac will recall seeing them in our own Civil War. As for poison gas, "stink-pots" had been employed for centuries in Chinese warfare.

Probably the first submarine ever manufactured was that made in 1624 by Dr. Cornelius van Drebbel, a Hollander. It was of wood and was propelled with oars, but with it Van Drebbel demonstrated, in a small way, the practicability of submarine navigation.

In 1772, David Bushnell, an ingenious Yankee who was then a student at Yale College, built a submarine called the *Turtle* which he intended to be used in warfare. It was propelled by a screw propellor which was connected with an interior hand crank. A torpedo was carried outside, and the plan was to sneak under a man-of-war, screw the torpedo to the ship, and then depart, leaving the torpedo to be fired by a time-clock device. Early in the Revolution, Bushnell's boat was given an actual trial against the British flagship *Eagle*, which was lying off Staten Island. Ezra Lee, a bold corporal in the American army, actually succeeded in navigating the *Turtle* to a vantage point under the *Eagle's* stern, but, as the ship was copper sheathed, he found it impossible to attach the torpedo, and, as daylight was approaching, he had to leave it floating near the ship. The *Turtle* escaped unnoticed, and, in due time, the torpedo exploded, but as it had, in the meantime, drifted some distance away, it did no harm other than to give the crew of the *Eagle* a terrific scare.

Early Submarines

Experiments with submarines were made by Robert Fulton both in Europe and America, by the Russians in the Crimean War, and by the Confederates in our own Civil War. The hull of one of the Confederate submarines was sunk in one of the canals near New Orleans when Farragut captured that city, but, after the war, it

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was raised and was placed in one of the city parks. These submarines proved more dangerous to their crews than to the enemy, and none of them succeeded in making a successful attack under water. One of them did manage, however, while running on the surface, to ram with a spar torpedo the Federal gunboat *Housatonic*, and the ensuing explosion sank both vessels.

Many subsequent experiments were made in various countries, but the inventors mainly responsible for perfecting this type of vessel were two Americans, John P. Holland and Simon Lake.

German Submarines

When the world war began, all the great Powers had submarines of one type or another, but this kind of vessel had never received a real trial in actual battle. Within a few weeks, the German submarines succeeded in sinking several British warships. In a few minutes one such wasp sent to the bottom three big British armored cruisers. From time to time thereafter, the submarines of the Central Powers took occasional toll from the fleets of their enemies, but it was soon discovered that the new device could not be employed with decisive effect against warships. The German hope of gaining control of the high seas through the use of their U-boats was destined to disappointment.

Inasmuch as the Central Powers kept their warships almost wholly in protected harbors, the Allied submarines had comparatively few opportunities to display their skill. On a few occasions, however, British submarines, in the Dardanelles and the Baltic, performed feats fully as notable as any credited to their enemies.

Destructive Warfare

Finding that their submarines could accomplish comparatively little by legitimate warfare, the Teutons early began diabolical and lawless attacks upon merchant vessels and practically discontinued attempts against warships. Such warfare was the reverse of glorious, but it proved enormously destructive not only to the enemy but to neutrals, and drew down upon Germany the hatred of almost the whole world.

The first German submarines were comparatively small vessels, and their fuel supply was so small that their cruising radius was at most only a few thousand miles. Soon, however, the German yards were turning out much larger U-boats, capable of remaining out for many weeks. Some of the super-submarines were of several thousand tons, carried heavy, long-range cannon, and were so speedy that on the surface they could overhaul all but the swiftest boats.

Some U-boats were manufactured entirely for the purpose of laying mines off enemy harbors. These boats would sneak to the spot where the mines were to be laid, would launch the mines out of "wells" provided for that purpose, and would then return to a home port for a new cargo of destruction.

U-boat Problems

The problem of meeting the U-boat taxed Allied ingenuity to the utmost. Now and then a submarine was sunk by gun-fire, and there can be no doubt that the arming of merchant ships was helpful in decreasing the danger from submarines. During 1917, several U-boats were sunk by the guns of American merchantmen alone.

Destroyers proved the most effective type of vessel with which to meet the submarines. Destroyers being swift and easily maneuvered, were frequently able to run down and ram the submarines, as well as to sink them by gun-fire. To discourage ramming tactics, the Germans early resorted to the plan of setting adrift imitation periscopes to which contact mines were attached, and more than one British destroyer came to grief through ramming such a "periscope".

Another German trick to mislead the enemy was that of releasing quantities of oil and pieces of wood when attacked. These would rise to the surface and lead the enemy to believe that the U-boat had been destroyed. The enemy would suspend the search, and the submarine would thus be given an opportunity to escape.

"Depth Bombs"

One of the most effective methods of destroying a submarine when once it was located proved to be "depth bombs". These bombs contained enormous charges of high explosive, and were so made that when they reached a certain depth the increased pressure of the water would cause them to explode. The destructive force of the charge was so great that actual contact with the submarine was not necessary, and the zone of danger extended for many yards.

When attacked, the submarines almost invariably submerged. A favorite plan of the German commanders was to sink to the bottom and remain there as long as the listening devices revealed that the propellor of an enemy vessel continued in movement above. As the pressure of the water becomes enormous with increasing depth, this plan could not be followed except where the water was comparatively shallow. Luckily for the Germans, much of the sea in the neighborhood of the British Isles is only a few fathoms deep.

Mines and nets were among the other devices used against the

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submarines. The English Channel, for example, was so thoroughly filled with mines and nets that the passage of submarines became

SUBMARINE, AIRSHIP, AEROPLANE

Photograph shows a Submarine running full speed, with a protecting Airship and a guardian Aeroplane following.

Nets and Mines

impractical, and German U-boats that wished to operate off the west coast of France and the south coast of England were forced

to make the long voyage round northern Scotland both going and returning—if they returned.

Many submarines were captured through being entangled in nets or through striking mines. In many cases mines were fastened to the nets, and thus nets became doubly dangerous. The later submarines were equipped with devices for cutting their way through nets.

Ruthless Submarine Warfare

The most successful period for the submarines was in the spring of 1917, soon after the declaration of ruthless warfare. During a few weeks they reaped a terrible harvest of merchant ships, and, if they could have continued at this rate, would undoubtedly have accomplished their purpose of forcing Great Britain to her knees.

But the swarming British, French, and American destroyers, hundreds of swift "chasers", mines, nets, merchant-ship guns, and other devices all took toll of the swarm of "wasps", with the result that during the summer and fall the number of merchant vessels sunk per week gradually declined until, by the second week of November, only one large British merchant ship was sunk, as against forty during the "black week" of April.

Inventors in all the Allied countries had long been busy evolving devices for meeting the awful peril, and some of their labors had borne fruit. The nature of these devices was not revealed, but of their existence there was no doubt.

Ericsson's "Monitor"

In the terrible days of '62 when the Confederate ironclad *Merrimac* threatened to bring irretrievable disaster to the cause of freedom and the Union, Ericsson had risen to the crisis and had evolved the necessary antidote in the shape of his famous *Monitor*. Now men whispered that another American inventor had proved equal to the demands of another supreme hour, and that the genius of Thomas A. Edison had saved Democracy and Civilization from the diabolical device of hell and the Hohenzollerns.

In the matter of aircraft, the outbreak of the war found the Germans laying most dependence upon dirigible balloons, the Allies upon aeroplanes. The Germans had more than one type of dirigible, but the one best known was the famous "Zeppelin". These craft varied in size, but the largest were several hundred feet in length, cost hundreds of thousands of dollars, and were capable of carrying more than a score of men, several machine-guns, and two or three tons of bombs.

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They proved much less successful than the Germans had hoped. Against an enemy poorly equipped with anti-aircraft guns or battle-planes they were able to carry out reconnaissances and to drop bombs on women and children in crowded cities. In the Roumanian campaign, for example, they seem to have proved helpful, and for a time they were able to raid London and other cities and return in safety. But in all their activities they accomplished very little destruction against objects of military importance. Their main feat was to increase the horror in which the word "German" came to be regarded.

The Zeppelins

As soon as the British aerial defenses reached a fair stage of development, the Zeppelin raiders began to meet with disaster. The first such raider to meet the fate it merited, succeeded in returning to Belgium, but was brought down near Ghent by a young Canadian aviator named Reginald Warneford. Subsequently several were destroyed in England itself, and the risks became so great that, during most of 1917, the Germans did not venture to send any more Zeppelins to that country. In the fall, the raids were renewed, but one fleet lost its way and on the return strayed over France. Four or five were destroyed or captured; another was brought down, but a few of the crew, by cutting away one of the cars, managed to escape with what remained of the craft.

The fact was that the enormous size of the Zeppelins made them too easy a mark for hostile gunners, while their speed was much less than that of the swift aeroplanes that combatted them. Furthermore, their cost was excessive, they easily got out of order, and not infrequently they were wrecked by heavy winds.

By their dastardly deeds they had won an evil name throughout the world, but they were not a practical solution of the problem of aerial navigation. It was settled that the name of the German Count Zeppelin would be far less honored in the history of invention than that of Orville and Wilbur Wright, those wonderful young Americans who evolved the aeroplane.

Advent of the Aeroplane in Warfare

Aeroplanes were used to some extent in the Balkan conflicts of 1912–13, but their first real trial in warfare came in 1914. At the outset, their number was comparatively small, and they were used chiefly to reconnoiter. Even in this respect, not all was accomplished that might have been, and the failure of the British at Mons to make the fullest possible use of them almost resulted in General French's

army being outflanked and surrounded by Von Kluck's more numerous forces. PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

From the beginning, however, the value of aeroplanes was clearly apparent, and all the belligerents set feverishly to work building up this branch of the service. The Germans and French ran a neck and neck race in this regard, while the British, as usual slow, were long outdistanced by friend and foe. Value of Aeroplanes

In America, which long watched the great conflict merely as an interested spectator, the advantages of aeroplanes were clearly apparent to all who had eyes to see, but the steps taken by the war department to build up an aerial force were negligible. A few aeroplanes were used in the pursuit of Villa, in Mexico, but the machines were inferior to those employed in Europe, and some of them quickly became unserviceable.

The war department, which ought to have been alert, did practically nothing toward training fliers, building machines, or even evolving plans. Although Americans had first invented the aeroplane, the country found itself, upon its entry into the war, with virtually no aerial service.

In Europe it quickly developed that aeroplanes were valuable not only for reconnoitering but for spotting the fire of artillery, for dropping bombs on ammunition dumps, railroads, bridges, and other objectives, for photographing the enemy's works, and for many other purposes.

Each side naturally endeavored to interfere with the aerial work of the other, and conflicts ensued of so spectacular and thrilling a character that, by comparison, the tournaments of the knights of old seemed tame and commonplace. Many years before, in fancy Tennyson had Spectacular Conflicts

> "Heard the heavens filled with shouting, and there rain'd a ghastly dew
> From the nations' airy navies grappling in the central blue."

And yet, in the words of a writer on aeronautics: "The most fantastic prophecies of aerial warfare have fallen short of the reality. The imagination of Jules Verne or Edgar Allen Poe have failed to conjure up pictures of battles in the sky half so thrilling as the actual encounters of to-day. An air battle is fought with a recklessness and an appalling hazard of life never before known on land or sea."

On land battles had come to be fought by such enormous numbers of men that the individual had seemingly ceased to be of any moment

ANTI-AIRCRAFT GUN MOUNTED ON BATTLESHIP

and of no more importance than a grain of sand on the seashore. The soldier marched to battle along with hundreds of thousands or even millions of other soldiers, in obedience to orders from commanders many miles away, and was killed by bullets or shells fired by enemies he never saw and who probably never saw him.

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In the air, however, man's individual importance was preserved. The airman had full scope for the employment of his skill and resourcefulness, and often fought battles matched against other individuals.

Skill of the Airman

In the olden days, doughty fighters, like David the Slinger or Richard the Lion-Hearted, could win fame by feats of personal prowess against one or more enemies, and now again individuals like the Germans Boelke and Immelman, the Frenchmen Guynemer and Navarre, or the Canadian Bishop, could gain world-wide renown by the number of antagonists they shot down in battles among the clouds. Some of these aerial heroes shot down forty or even fifty opponents before meeting their own fates.

Up to November, 1917, Major William Avery Bishop, the crack Canadian flyer, had engaged in a hundred and ten single combats with German machines. He had sent forty-seven "Hun" machines crashing to earth, and had shot down twenty-three others under conditions that made it impossible to know certainly whether or not they and their pilots had been destroyed. He had experienced several thrilling escapes, including a fall of four thousand feet with his machine in flames. He had performed one of the most remarkable feats of the war, namely, he had single-handed attacked a German airdrome and destroyed three enemy machines. By his exploits he won the Military Medal, the Order of Distinguished Service, and, most coveted of all, the Victoria Cross. Furthermore, he was made chief instructor of aerial gunnery and commander of an airplane squadron. Having performed all these exploits, this Canadian youth of twenty-two, and weighing only about a hundred pounds, was given an extended furlough and returned to Canada to wed the girl who was waiting for him.

High Honors to Airmen

Hundreds of almost incredible exploits were performed by aviators on both sides, but perhaps none was more remarkable than that of the British airman who accomplished the feat of capturing a German airman on the ground and carrying him into captivity. The episode was narrated as follows by a British lieutenant:

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"One of our little 'wasps' (a particularly fast one at that) was riding high in the heavens. He was very high up, so high, indeed, as to have been undetected by the enemy as he swept over the lines at a speed exceeding 100 miles an hour. He was alone in the deep blue sky, while French and British and some German machines passed and repassed far below him.

"He had flown over the lines and down there on the earth he could see country in which were no signs of troops. The first symptom of his detection by the enemy was a tiny black airplane several thousand feet below—some scout making off to give news of him. It is the thought of a second, a swift movement of the control lever, and the young pilot swoops down and opens fire with his deadly little machine gun.

AN AIR BATTLE

" 'Rat, tat, tat, tat,' goes the machine gun, and there is an answering 'pop, pop, pop, pop.' The Boche fights like a devil possessed, turning, diving, climbing—anything to escape his deadly attacker.

"But the German was beaten. He could not compete with this wonderful little machine and with its inexorable occupant. He dived to ground, followed by the English airman. In landing he crashed and his machine turned turtle. Shaken but unhurt, he climbed out, regained his machine-gun and opened fire at his opponent, who was circling round above. The latter dived, flattened out and landed in the next field far from any house or visible sign of life.

"Thereupon ensued a battle royal. Both plied their machine guns for all they were worth. The English gun was the first to jam; the pilot has perforce to play 'possum', revolver in hand. In such a situation some one has to make the first move. Unfortunately for the Hun, he, in his endeavor to ascertain the meaning of this sudden silence, advanced unwarily, and found himself pulled up at revolver point.

A REMARKABLE CAPTURE

" 'Good morning,' said his opponent.

" 'Good morning,' replied the Hun.

" 'Just jump into my machine,' murmured the Englishman, 'and mind, no tricks!'

"An invitation like this cannot be refused, especially when it is given three feet away from behind the convincing-looking 'automatic' of the very latest type. The Hun, without remonstrance, climbed into the spare seat, the self-starter was put into action, and

captor and captured rose from the ground, leaving the wrecked plane to be puzzled over by the Germans." PERIOD VIII — A WORLD POWER —

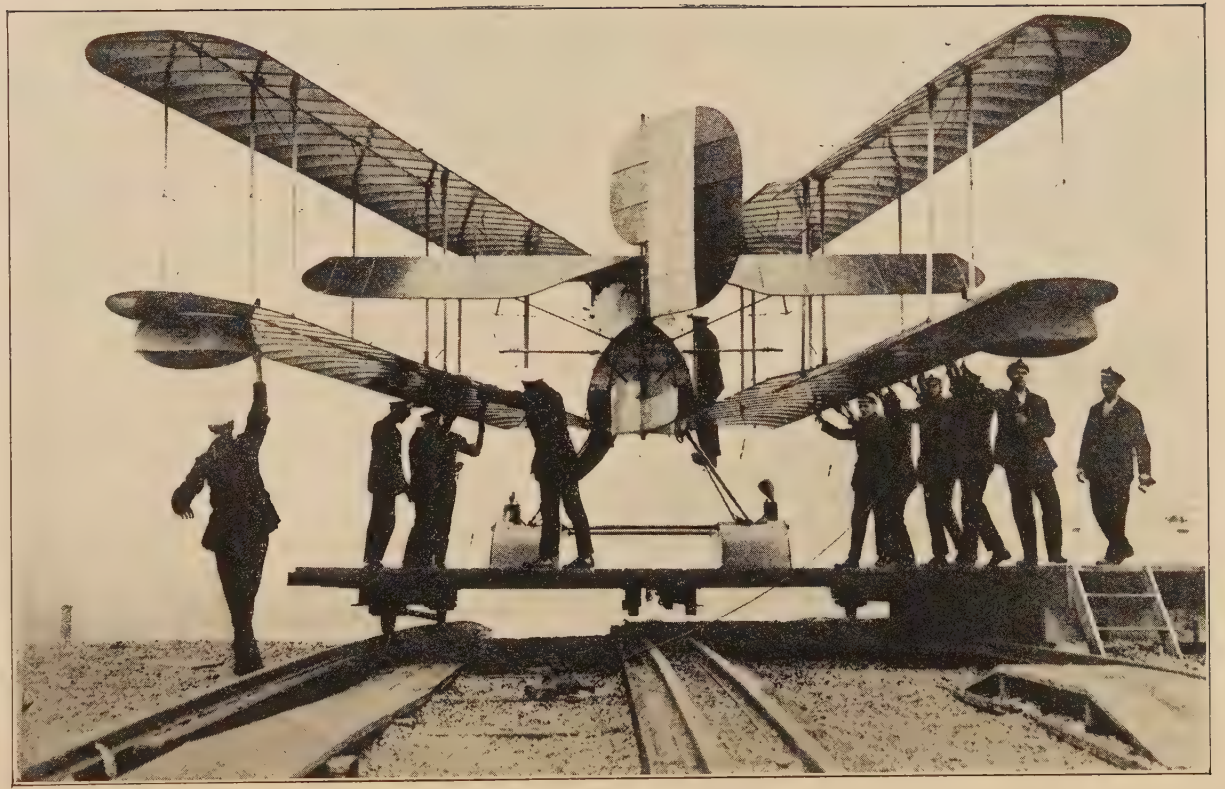
Another British flyer, Major Rees, was suddenly attacked by ten German planes. But Rees maneuvered his machine so skillfully and shot with such deadly aim that he brought down three of the enemy, while the rest fled home. For this exploit Rees was awarded the Victoria Cross. He later came to America and assisted in the building up of our air fleet. Wins Victoria Cross

Navarre, an intrepid but erratic French flier, was once surrounded by a flock of five or six German planes that cut off his escape on every side. In desperation, he threw up his machine and looped the loop. This maneuver brought him in the rear of the Germans, a position that gave him a great advantage. By rapid and accurate work with his machine-gun he quickly brought two German machines crashing down to earth thousands of feet below.

Some of the famous flyers had favorite tricks for obtaining an advantage over an enemy. Immelman, a celebrated German, loved to hide high up behind a cloud watching for an incautious enemy, upon whom he would dive down like a hawk upon a chicken yard. A rapid burst of machine-gun fire would usually settle the combat. Sometimes he varied the plan by having a slow German plane lure the enemy past the cloud in which he was hiding. Boelke, another German, enjoyed having a number of comrades distract the attention of the enemy, and, at an opportune moment, he would swoop down from above and end the combat. Guynemer's favorite maneuver was to pursue the enemy, keeping below him, and then, at the right moment, to rear up his machine, like a horse on its hind legs, and open fire. As he was a splendid shot, he would frequently get his enemy at the first trial. If not, he would avoid a collision by looping the loop and would then endeavor to repeat the maneuver. In one day, he shot down four enemy planes. Looping the Loop

Speed is one of the most important factors in a fighting plane. The aviator having the faster machine is able generally to choose his position and attack from a side that gives his enemy little opportunity for defense. Under such circumstances discretion dictates that the flyer with the slower plane should dive for the safety of his own lines, or resort to any gyration in order to escape from his deadly foe.

Types of machines changed with marvelous rapidity, and under the spur of necessity the manufacturers and designers of aeroplanes



GREAT BRITISH SEAPLANE

This photograph shows one of the mammoth British Seaplanes having its wings folded and being "put to bed", as it were, after a flight

probably made more progress in three years of warfare than they would have accomplished in a generation of peace. By the end of 1917, the planes built before the beginning of the conflict were practically as out-of-date as the famous "John Bull" locomotive of nearly a century ago. A plane that could make only a hundred miles an hour was considered altogether too slow for really serious work in aerial warfare.

New Types of Aeroplanes

Furthermore, it had rapidly become customary to build different types of planes for different purposes, just as it had long been customary to build different kinds of warships. In time there came to be light, tremendously swift fighting planes manned with one or at most two men and bearing a machine-gun, and capable of making 140, 150, even 160 miles per hour. The place of these craft was high up in the heavens—two, three, even four miles up—whence they could dive down upon enemy planes beneath. The most famous airmen used planes of this sort, and theirs was the "ceiling work" of aerial warfare.

At lower levels ranged other types of planes; much heavier planes carrying even small cannon, big bombing planes capable of lifting large quantities of high explosives and carrying them to places where they would do the enemy most harm, "spotting" planes watching the fire of their artillery and signaling by wireless to artillerymen miles behind the front, observation planes spying out the enemy's secrets, and photographing his works. And woe to the unfortunate battery revealed upon the developed film!

Captive Balloons

Still nearer the ground and well back from the front lines floated a long line of captive balloons, whence observers constantly watched the enemy or directed the fire of their own artillery. Now and then enemy planes would raid these balloons and, if lucky, would destroy them. The fate of the observers in such a craft was likely to be a horrible one, yet often they would escape from the burning craft in a parachute.

Whole fleets of aeroplanes came to be common, and when two hostile fleets met, the conflict that followed would be indescribable. Both in these fleet actions, and in duels between two planes, the most extraordinary gyrations would be resorted to in order to gain a point of vantage or to escape from a dangerous position.

Far beneath the battle would be watched with interest by the soldiers of the two armies, while anti-aircraft artillerymen were ever

TRAINING IN USE OF GAS MASKS

American soldiers "somewhere in France" removing gas masks after period in a gas cloud

on the alert for a chance to explode a shell just beneath a plane of the enemy.

Poison Gas

Poison gas first came into notice in the second battle of Ypres, in April, 1915. The rules of war definitely declared against the employment of this diabolical device, but the Germans, for neutral and home consumption, invented a tale to the effect that the French were using it. By springing it unexpectedly they won a temporary success at Ypres, and beyond doubt they found it helpful against the Russians, but the British and French quickly perfected masks that rendered it comparatively harmless. Chlorine gas was first used, but, in course of time, several other varieties were employed by the various combatants. One sort was designed to make the soldiers' eyes water so badly that they could not see how to aim, thus rendering them practically helpless.

At first, it was customary for the Germans to release poison gas from their front-line trenches and let the wind carry it down in a cloud upon the enemy. As chlorine gas is considerably heavier than air, it, of course, remained close to the ground, and was particularly deadly in low places. Against enemy positions on high ground this method was, of course, impracticable. Furthermore, it was found that sometimes the wind would change and would bring back the gas to plague those who had released it. It was not long before both sides were using gas not only in this way but in shells, which would release it upon exploding. The possibilities of the weapon were thus infinitely widened. Troops miles behind the front-line trenches now had to be on the watch against it. The use of poison gas added greatly to the horrors and suffering of warfare, but none of the combatants reaped any permanent advantages from it.

The "Tanks"

The greatest British contribution to the new warfare was the so-called "tank," which was a sort of terrestrial battleship. They were especially designed to cross trenches, break down barbed-wire entanglements, and fight the ubiquitous machine-gun. They were really very large, armored automobiles mounted on "caterpillar tractors", invented before the war by an American named Benjamin Holt, and manufactured at Peoria, Illinois. The smaller ones, or "females", carried only machine-guns, but the larger tanks, the "males", were armed also with quick-firers that used shells. The tanks were built with the greatest possible secrecy, and the name bestowed upon them was selected for the purpose of misleading enemy spies.

CATERPILLAR TANK

The picture shows this uncouth giant starting "over the top" at the battle of Menin Road, France

The tanks were first sent into action on September 15, 1916, in one of the big "pushes" of the Somme offensive. When they waddled forward into action, they were met by a storm of armor-piercing bullets, but only a few of them were disabled by these or by shell fire. At British headquarters the greatest eagerness prevailed to learn how the tanks were doing, and great enthusiasm was aroused when a British airman reported that one of them was walking up the high street of Fleurs, followed by cheering soldiers.

Futile Attacks on the Tanks

As for the Germans, they were struck aghast by the strange apparitions. In some cases they charged the monsters, only to be shot down by the machine-guns. In at least one instance, they even climbed over a tank and pounded it with their rifles. It is even said that a German officer who discovered the door to one of the tanks was seized and hauled inside a prisoner.

Both on the occasion of their debut and later, the tanks proved extremely useful, most of all in the great assault on the "Hindenburg Line" in November, 1917. They were able to cross very rough ground, including shell craters and enemy trenches, and to walk right through and over barbed wire entanglements. At Courcellete a famous tank called "Creme de Menthe" pushed a solid stone wall over on the heads of the Germans who were defending it. Their chief specialty, however, was in "abating" machine-guns. In the words of Colonel E. D. Swinton, their reputed inventor:

"The most convincing proof of the difference made by their intervention is ocular, and is afforded by the 'pattern' of the field of battle over which a British attack has passed. Where tanks have accompanied the advance and have been able to eat up the enemy machine-guns left over by our bombardment, the bodies of our infantry strew No Man's Land irregularly, here and there. Where tanks have not been used, in some places the bodies can be seen lying in front of the enemy's machine-gun 'nests' and strong points in swaths like cut corn: in a series of high-water marks showing where the successive waves of the assaults have met and been petrified by the death-dealing spray of the German Maxims."

Tanks and Machine Guns

The tank was, of course, merely a "super-armored" motor car, its chief distinguishing characteristic being that it was mounted on caterpillar wheels that enabled it to travel over very rough ground and even to cross shell craters and trenches. Smaller armored cars were in use from the very beginning, and they did good service in

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Belgium and elsewhere, but were of comparatively little value after trench fighting began.

Automobiles and Motor Trucks

The main use of the automobile was not, however, as "land battleships" but for transportation purposes. Trucks were used by the thousands to bring up munitions, and it is probable that the Germans would not have been able to make their great dash across Belgium and northern France if they had not been well supplied with these vehicles. Later, trucks played fully as important a part in the defense of Verdun. In the early days of the war, any sort of truck that was available was put in service, and scores of prominent London firms became well-known in France through the advertising on their vans that had been requisitioned by the army. Later, vast numbers of trucks were especially built for military purposes, and thousands of them were shipped from America to France, Russia, and elsewhere.

Motor ambulances were also widely used. Everywhere behind the French and British fronts especially the observer saw hundreds of such vehicles.

Famous Chauffeurs

Generals almost ceased to ride horses. Instead, they were whirled from place to place in motor cars, and were able to save precious time and cover far greater distances. Some of the famous racing pilots, for example the Frenchman Goux, became chauffeurs for great generals.

In the transportation of troops automobiles proved invaluable. Some of the important victories of the war were won by using large numbers of cars in concentrating men at a strategic point. At a critical moment in the invasion of France, a great force of men was sent from Paris in a vast fleet of motor cabs, and these men played a prime part in winning the victory of the Marne.

In the matter of motor transport the Allies enjoyed several important advantages over the Central Powers. They were able to purchase great numbers of cars of every type in America and to replenish their stocks of gasoline and rubber. The German supply of gasoline was always scanty, and their supply of rubber finally became so short that they were forced to have recourse to such makeshifts as metal springs in place of pneumatic tires. The use of automobiles had to be almost entirely prohibited except for military purposes.

Along with the new developments there were also some interesting

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Revival of the Bayonet

reversals. As early as the adoption of the breech-loader, many military men had prophesied that the day of charges was past and that the bayonet had ceased to be of any real use. The same prediction was renewed when the repeating rifle and again when the machine-gun came into use. Nevertheless, charges and hand-to-hand fighting continued to be common, and hardly a day passed without such encounters. Infantrymen were carefully trained in the use of the bayonet, and great reliance was placed upon "cold steel". In fact, it is doubtful whether in any war in recent times there was, even comparatively, as much fighting with this weapon.

Another old and almost disused weapon that once more came into favor was the hand grenade. This had been one of the earliest developments following the introduction of gunpowder, and the troops that were armed with grenades were called grenadiers. One of the most popular British army songs, dating from the sixteenth century, tells how:

> "When-e'er we are commanded to storm the palisades,
> Our leaders march with fusees, and we with hand-grenades;
> We throw them from the glacis about the enemies' ears,
> Sing tow row row row row row, the British Grenadiers."

Grenades and Grenadiers

There were still grenadiers in the British army, but their business had long since ceased to be that of hurling bombs. When trench fighting began, such weapons were so scarce in General French's army that his men improvised them by filling tin cans with explosives and attaching fuses.

It was not long before all the armies were equipped with enormous supplies of grenades, and most troops were carefully trained to throw them. "Rifle grenades" that could be fired from an ordinary service rifle also came into common use.

Hand grenades were particularly adapted to trench fighting, and were very effective to drop into dugouts in which enemy soldiers were lying concealed.

As most American soldiers could throw well, owing to their having played base-ball, it was expected that they would make splendid grenadiers. The motion employed in hurling a grenade is, however, not the same as that used in throwing a ball, but is more like that of the shot-putter in putting the shot. Nevertheless, it was quickly discovered that the Americans were much superior to their French instructors in hurling the deadly missiles.

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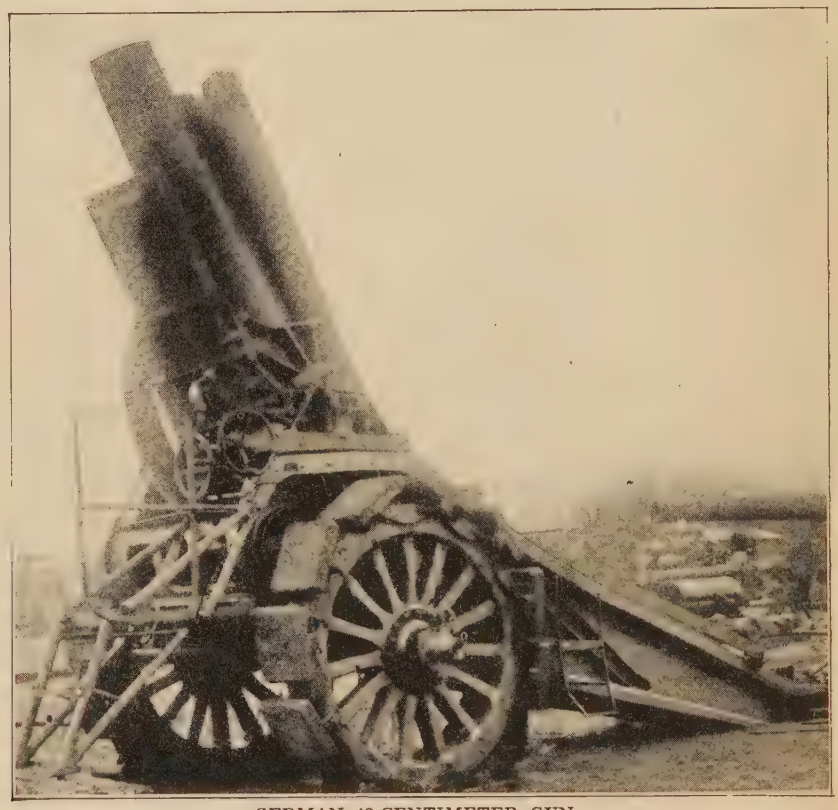
Liquid Fire

Another even older weapon than the grenade was liquid fire. "Greek fire", as it was called, was used by the Byzantines in mediaeval times, long before gunpowder came into use. The Germans revived the use of this old weapon and applied modern contrivances to propelling it. As the composition was practically inextinguishable, those who had the misfortune to be struck by a stream of it



GERMAN 42-CENTIMETER GUN

This photograph shows one of the famous guns with which the Germans had fully equipped themselves previous to the war

would be horribly burned, while everything inflammable with which it came into contact would be set on fire.

The combination of a maze of trenches bristling with rifles and machine-guns and protected by barbed-wire entanglements, and great numbers of cannon of every calibre, with aerial observers to watch the movements of the enemy, and with a network of roads and railroads on which to bring up speedily needed reënforce-

ments, proved so formidable that some observers on the Western front contended that defense had mastered offense, that neither belligerent would ever be able to drive back the other and that a state of perpetual stalemate would ensue.

Artillery Barrages

The most obvious solution of the problem was the concentration of an immense number of cannon against a given section of line. In May, 1915, the Germans and Austrians employed this method successfully against the Russian line on the Donajec and thereby brought about a collapse of the Russian power in Galicia. The same method was also successful elsewhere on the Eastern, Balkan, and Italian fronts, but in the West the battle lines long defied all efforts to break them. The British efforts at Neuve Chapelle, Loos, and elsewhere, the French attacks in Champagne, and the German strokes at Ypres and Verdun, all failed to effect a complete rupture of the line. At Verdun five months of bloody fighting and the expenditure of the greatest number of shells ever hitherto fired in a single military enterprise, resulted merely in the loss of hundreds of thousands of lives and in local gains. When the effort was finally given up, the French lines still held; the French poilus still said defiantly: "They shall not pass!"

The same year the British made their great push in the region of the Somme, and by persistent battering drove a deep wedge in the German front. A few weeks more of good weather would probably have enabled them actually to break through, but continued rains transformed the terrain into such a quagmire that serious operations had to be suspended in November, and the Germans were able to hang on until Spring, when Von Hindenburg executed a "strategic retreat", evacuating over a thousand square miles of territory but falling back to powerful lines that had been prepared for the purpose.

Strategic Retreat

By 1917, the French and British had obtained such a preponderance of artillery, shells, and aeroplanes that the German hold in the West had grown precarious. Barrage fire had attained a perfection that seemed almost incredible. When an assault was made, the infantry moved forward behind a curtain of bursting shells that rendered it almost impossible for the enemy to remain above the ground and fire upon the assailants. This curtain of fire was so thoroughly under control that it was possible for the artillerists, miles in the rear, to continue bombarding the enemy's trenches

JUGGERNAUTS OF WAR

The photograph shows a battery of French St. Chamond Tanks, the most gigantic and powerful of this type of war machines

until their own infantry was ready for the final plunge. At a given moment, or at a given signal—usually the firing of rockets—the barrage would be lifted and turned against objectives farther in the rear, which, all the while, would have been subjected to a bombardment from other guns.

The moment the barrage lifted, the infantry would charge madly through the remnants of the barbed-wire barriers, and would frequently be among the defenders before they had an opportunity to emerge from their shelters and prepare for defense. Each assailant was a specialist with a certain weapon and was assigned a certain task. Some bore ordinary rifles, others rifle grenades, others hand grenades, others light machine-guns, and others even small cannon for use against any machine-guns that had survived the shells.

Each Soldier a Specialist

As a protection against bombardments, the Germans resorted to deep caves into which they could retire out of reach of any except the heaviest shells and from which they could emerge and fight the assaulting infantry. Some of these underground works were incredibly large, amounting almost to underground cities. Near Bullecourt the British, in 1917, captured a great concrete tunnel thirteen miles long and forty feet deep. The tunnel had been constructed, it is said, by Russian prisoners of war. Entrances were provided every hundred feet or so, and the whole tunnel was lighted with electricity.

Shell Craters

But the co-ordination of infantry attacks with barrage fire attained such perfection that offense seemed on the point of mastering defense, and a new development ensued. To a considerable extent the Germans discarded formal trenches and trusted to holding shell craters that were connected with each other by underground passages. "Pill boxes" made of concrete were also built here and there to protect machine-guns and their crews. Great pains were taken to conceal these "boxes", and some of them could be raised or lowered above or below the level of the ground.

The German front line was now held by comparatively few men, and the number of machine-guns was constantly increasing. This deadly weapon had, in fact, come to be the main German reliance. Deprived of it, they would have been swept out of Belgium in a week.

One or two men, with a machine-gun firing several hundred shots per minute, could often hold up an entire battalion and inflict scores or even hundreds of casualties.

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A Tank Triumph

On November 20, 1917, the British introduced a marked innovation in their method of attack. Instead of heralding their intentions by a tremendous bombardment and thus enabling the Germans to bring up reserves of men and guns, they secretly concentrated opposite a thirty-mile front from St. Quentin to the river Scarpe great numbers of tanks. In the early morning the tanks moved forward, smashing their way through the zone of barbed wire and thus opening a way for the infantry. Tanks and infantry thus co-operating, in two days captured the German lines to a depth of five miles, taking thousands of prisoners and great numbers of guns, and inflicting one of the most stunning blows the Teutons had ever received.

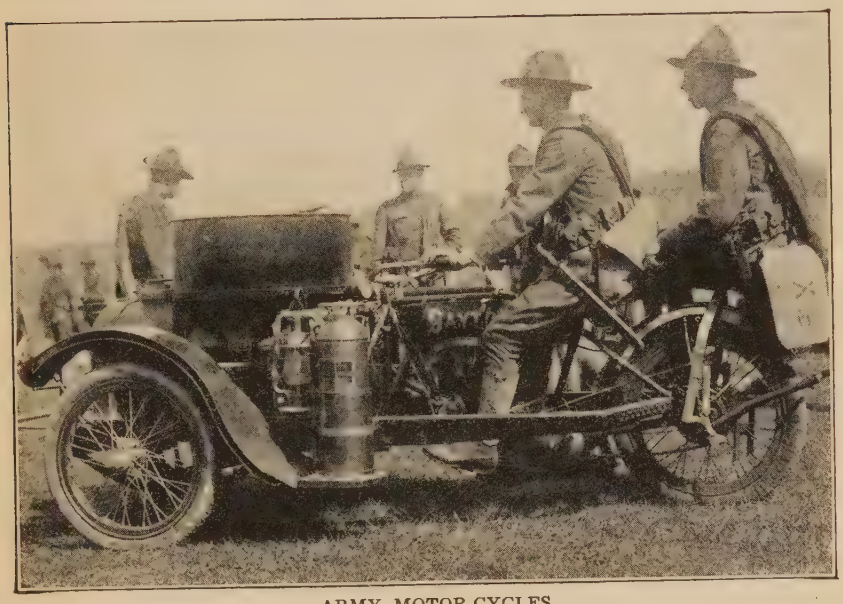
Earlier in the war, some military writers had hastily assumed that the use of aircraft had banished the possibility of surprise attacks on a large scale, but this conclusion had already been proved erroneous. On the Eastern fronts, where such craft were not used to the same extent as on the Western fronts, there had been repeated instances of successful surprises, nor were such instances wanting in the West. In February, 1916, the French air service failed to discover the vast concentration of German forces opposite Verdun, though it is said that they discerned some signs of unusual activity. The consequence was that the first great "smash" scored heavily, and many thousands of French troops were captured. A year later, Von Hindenburg made his great withdrawal of guns and war material from the Somme lines with such secrecy that the Allies did not discover the movement until too late to embarrass it. Similarly, in October following, the Germans and Austrians made their great concentration against the Italians so quietly that they were able to effect a complete surprise and deliver one of the most staggering blows of the whole war.

Secret Movements

The use of aircraft had, however, made surprise vastly more difficult than hitherto. One result of this state of affairs was that the art of concealment received vastly more attention than ever before in warfare. Not only were troops dressed as inconspicuously as possible, but big guns were hidden by all sorts of devices, and even the tanks were painted in mottled designs that not only made them less conspicuous but added greatly to their odd appearance. Hundreds of painters and landscape gardeners were set to work evolving plans for deceiving the enemy, and the word "*camouflage*" came into common use.

From what has been said, it becomes apparent that the American officers and men who went to France had a vast deal to learn. In three years, warfare had been revolutionized, and an army that attempted to attack according to old methods would have been marching simply to destruction.

Even the matter of the transportation of men and supplies had come to be a problem of vast dimensions for European armies and



ARMY MOTOR-CYCLES

even more so for those of the United States. In defending and attacking the far-flung lines on the Western front the various belligerents built thousands of miles of new roads and railroads, while literally millions of men were kept busy "feeding" the fighting line with food, ammunition, and other supplies.

Problem of Transportation

The side enjoying the best system of transportation possessed an enormous advantage, for strategy has been shrewdly defined as the problem of "getting there first with the most men".

The Germans, perhaps more than any of the other belligerents, understood the importance of transportation even before the war began, and their ability quickly to transport troops and guns from one front to another on their splendid system of strategic railways was one of the main factors in their wonderful success.

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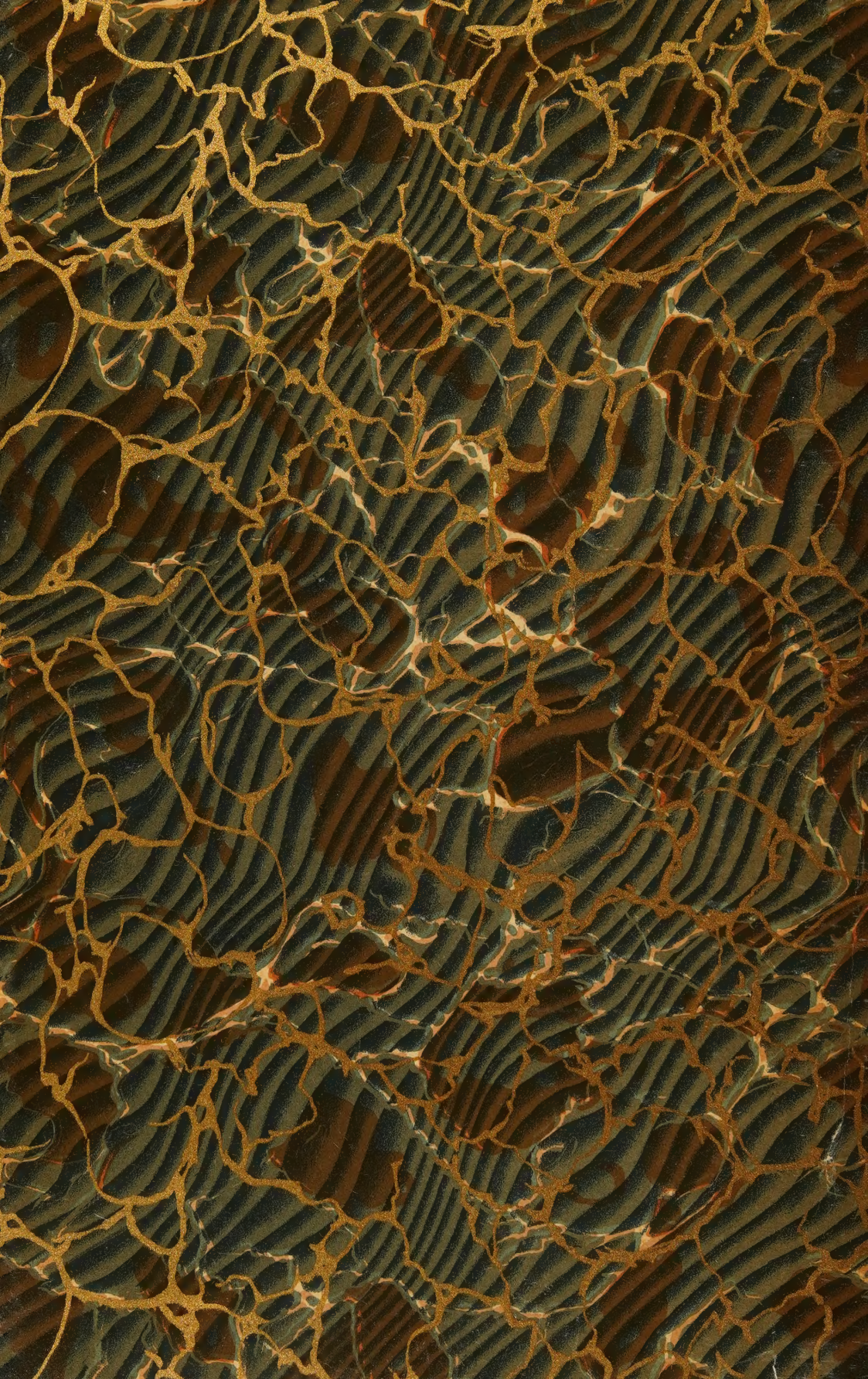
Germany's Preparations

Even the invasion of Belgium had been prepared for long before by building railways close to the Belgian border and providing long platforms upon which men and guns could be speedily unloaded.

If there existed no other evidence of Germany's long and deep-laid scheme to violate Belgium's neutrality, these railways would be conclusive evidence in the court of history. In localities containing only a dozen cottages, sidings were provided on such a scale that in the aggregate they were able to accommodate trains carrying a complete army corps of forty thousand men. At one tiny station, in a thinly inhabited district, there were three sidings each five hundred yards long; at another a perfect network, two of them half a mile long and equipped with turntables.

In invading Belgium the German General Staff carried out plans, the details of which were fixed long before. Such vast offensives cannot be improvised on the spur of the moment; they require months of preparation and careful planning.

With all its manifold ramifications the Great War undoubtedly constituted the most stupendous effort that mankind had ever put forth.

And it is the tragedy of the ages that all this effort was designed to destroy, not to create, to render humanity miserable rather than happy.

Man is a reasoning but not a reasonable being.